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ABSTRACT

This document contains 21 papers examining the state of adult and continuing education in Africa. The following papers are included: "Introduction: An Overview of the State of Adult and Continuing Education in Africa" (Akpovire Oduaran); "Setting the Tone of Adult and Continuing Education in Africa" (Michael A. Omolewa); "Significant Post Independence Developments in Adult and Continuing Education in Africa" (Tai Afrik); "Research and Scholarship in Adult and Continuing Education in Africa" (Akpovire Oduaran); "From Adult Education to Lifelong Learning in Southern Africa over the Last Twenty Years" (Shirley Walters, Kathy Watters); "The State of Adult and Continuing Education in Botswana" (Gbolagade Adekanmbi, Oitshepile Modise); "Creating a Knowledge Society through Distance and Open Learning in Cameroon" (Ajaga Nji); "The State of Adult Literacy in the Democratic Republic of Congo" (Ikete E. Belotsi, Muntumosi Atukimba); "Research Priorities in Adult and Continuing Education in Kenya" (Florida A. Karani); "The State of Adult and Continuing Education in Lesotho" (Lephoto H. Manthoto, Dele Braimoh, and A. Adeola); "The State of Adult and Continuing Education in Madagascar" (Violette Rabakoarivelo, Rakotozafy-Harisson, Solo Randriamahaleo); "Diversity of Adult and Nonformal Education Provisions in Namibia" (Sabo A. Indabawa); "Continuing Education Policy Provisions and

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Options in Nigeria" (Gidado Tahir); "The State of Adult and Continuing Education in Senegal" (Lamine Kane); "The Political and Social Contexts of Adult Education and Training in South Africa" (Zelda Groener); "The Development and Provision of Adult Education and Literacy in Zambia" (Derek C. Mulenga); "The State of Adult Literacy Education in Zimbabwe" (Stanley T. Mpofu); "Re-Defining Adult and Continuing Education in Africa" (Paul Fordham); "Inventing a Future for Adult Education in Africa" (H.S. Bhola); "International Cooperation in Adult Education: A German View of Focus on Africa" (Heribert Hinzen); and "Annotated Bibliography of 44 Selected Works of Jones Akinpelu" (Sabo A. Indabawa). (Most papers contain substantial bibliographies.) (MN)

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THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

ED 453 359

Edited by:

Sabo A. Indabawa
Akpovire Oduaran
Tai Afrik
Shirley Walters

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DEDICATION

To:

Professor Jones Adelayo Akinpelu,
Professor Emeritus, Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan, Nigeria,
the father of the Philosophy of Adult and Continuing Education in Africa

for

his contribution to the development of Adult and Continuing Education in Africa.

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FOREWORD

It is a privilege for me to write the Foreword of this book: few comprehensive studies of adult education have come from the African continent and so this is an exciting development - for a number of reasons:

It is really important indication of the way that the study of the education of adults is developing in the South. It is vital for the development of societies that adults should continue to be educated and the fact that the study of the process is now developing is excellent.

Secondly, for too long the continent has been exposed to Western thought and ideas without having its own established baseline by which to evaluate these. Indeed, many of the ideas from the North have been imposed on the peoples of Africa. Now it is time to develop African bodies of knowledge that reflect the culture of the South and evaluate and criticise the ideas from African thought.

Thirdly, this is an exciting development because it is now time for critical dialogue, so that through sharing there can be mutual enrichment. This mutuality is at the heart of adult teaching and learning and we now question some of its taken-for-granted assumptions can now learn from African thought.

Now only do I welcome this book and commend it to all scholars in the field since it can extend our understanding of the education of adults, but I look forward to further studies which probe even more deeply into adult learning and education in African cultures. I also look forward to some comparative studies both of the education for adults in different African societies but also African and Western societies.

IIZ/DVV is to be commended for supporting this publication.

The Editors of this book are to be congratulated on their vision and may those who read it find it enriching.

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In acknowledging the numerous forms of help received in making the idea of this book a reality, I will only limit myself to a few vital details. This is necessary given the fact that yet another book could be written on the conception, process and completion of the work.

First, I offer special words of thanks to all those, who in any imagined way, have had any reason to associate themselves or their institutions with the book project. This type of project is necessarily a collective undertaking. However, it may be a daunting task to name all those who supported or facilitated the idea to its full fruition. I can only mention a few.

Secondly, I wish to acknowledge the key role of Professor Jones Adelayo Akinpelu, my teacher and mentor, in honour of whom the book's idea started. This idea transmuted in different forms as the discussion on contributors, co-ordination, writing, printing and distributing the book went on. Professor Akinpelu personally supported all these processes, without any hesitation. We feel proud that the book is a reality, mainly because he permitted it. We also feel most pleased that the book is deservingly dedicated to him, in the first instance. While the book project was going on, the Council of the University of Ibadan decided to appoint him as the First Professor Emeritus in Adult Education. This fully justified our decision to dedicate the book to him.

Thirdly, I wish to acknowledge the unique support of the editors: Professor Akpovire Oduaran, (who initiated the idea of the book), Professor Shirley Walters and Dr. Tai Afrik (who mid-wifed it with continuing smiles). They did more than their expected roles to see the book through to the end. Next to them are the consulting editors: Professor Michael Omolewa, Professor Frank Youngman, Professor Gidado Tahir and Professor Florida A. Karani. This team committed lots of their precious time and energy to the book project. Although they should not take any blame for any possible defect that may be found in the book, they deserve the full credit of giving it quality and value. We are deeply grateful for their overwhelming support.

Fourthly, the contributors of chapters deserve our special gratitude for their readiness to commit time to write their various incisive papers. Out of an initial list of thirty potential contributors we secured submissions from 19. A few more chapters came after we had gone to press. I will, unhesitatingly say that without the contributions, the book would never have seen the light of the day. Although the editors tried to shape up the chapters as far as possible, the contributors are responsible for the opinions expressed in their chapters.

Fifthly, the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV), willingly provided financial support to the book project. We are particularly thankful to Prof.(H) Dr. Heribert Hinzen, the Director, and to Dr. Hanno Schindele and Mr. Henna Hildebrand. Both the IIZ/DVV and each of these individuals offered immensely invaluable assistance in ensuring that the book project moved to a successful completion stage. We look forward to greater partnership in the years ahead for the promotion of adult and continuing education in Africa and the world for the good of humanity.

Sixthly, I wish to thank the Vice Chancellor of the University of Namibia, Professor Peter H.Katjavivi, for his full support and exemplary leadership. In a similar way, I wish to thank Dr. G.D.Kober for affording me the congenial physical and social setting from which this book project was co-ordinated.

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SECTION I: SETTING THE TONE

Chapter 1: Introduction: An Overview of the State of Adult and Continuing Education in Africa
Akpovire Oduaran

Chapter 2: Setting the Tone of Adult and Continuing education in Africa
Michael Omolewa

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION: AN OVERVIEW OF THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Akpovire Oduaran

In the Beginning

Since 1928 when Eduard C. Lindeman made more explicit, even if controversial, the meaning, purpose, scope and methods of adult education, in his book titled *The Meaning of Adult Education,* the discipline has undergone significant transformations. It has moved away from a narrow and pedantic discipline to bring into being vigorously active components like continuing education, distance education, experiential learning, community education, lifelong learning and empowerment amongst others. It has also been trying to move away from a field of study that is dominated by what Roger Boshier once referred to as "back-door" specialists and "gifted amateurs" to one in which there are long standing curricula and well laid out patterns of professional development. In fact, the scope of operation of the discipline has been so extensive that it is getting more readily understood as "adult and continuing education." This is one of the developments that have influenced the choice of the title for this book.

This book is not the first attempt at a continent-wide collectivization of efforts, thoughts and scholarship. Earlier attempts at the goals we aimed at achieving in this text had been thwarted by Africa's past history. For anyone to appreciate the worth of the goals we have stood to achieve, it might be necessary to highlight this past in the light of how it has tended to limit the growth of our discipline.

Before 1884/85, there had been intensive campaigns by many foreign interests and powers to appropriate as many parts of the continent as they could for various reasons. At the onset, the reasons appeared to be religious. For in the 11th Century AD, Arab traders and scholars had penetrated North Africa to convert the populace to Islam. They had hardly succeeded in extending their mission to Western, Eastern and Southern Africa when European explorers and Christian Missionaries arrived on the West Coast of Africa at about 1540 AD. The rulers of Portugal at that time had begun by then to sponsor the likes of Vasco da Gama to the West Coast of Africa just as other Missions from Europe started landing on the East and South coasts.

Initially, the efforts of the foreign interests were understood, albeit wrongly, to be that of exploration and at best missionary. But as kingdoms after kingdoms in the continent began to be subdued politically either for the purpose of "civilizing" hitherto "uncivilized" people, it dawned on Africans that the intentions of the foreign powers and interests were much more than had been anticipated. In fact, when the Europeans arrived, the Arabic earlier incursion became somewhat insignificant in the political power play and intrigues that were later visited on Africa. By 1884/85, the process known as the "Scramble for Africa" had become so intensive and conflictual that some of the European powers were almost coming to the verge of full scale war over who should possess which part of Africa. To lay to rest the potentially explosive situation among the European interests in terms of grabbing lands in Africa, they agreed to settle their differences at the Berlin Conference in 1884/85. There, the important decision was reached to partition the continent among Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Spain and Portugal. That was the most significant historical event, which has shaped the destiny and experiences of Africans, to date.

The history of the European colonial enterprise and its implications for Africa has been well told many history books. Magdoff [1982] has described the link between the annexation of foreign territories and the domination of weaker peoples by stronger powers as these events relate to imperialism and its sustenance.

Many of the impediments to the development of several underdeveloped nations, particularly in Africa, are squarely located in the imperialist fervour that is still blowing like a wild wind throughout the world to date.

In the context of this book, the Scramble for and Partition of Africa has meant the manifestation of cultural imperialism. Part of this cultural imperialistic manifestation has been the educational influence, which was inherited at Independence beginning from the 1950s.

Cultural imperialism has influenced Africa's educational systems in a tremendous way. But this influence has been much pronounced in areas of foreign languages that were imposed on our peoples mainly for the convenience of those who colonized them. The advantages and disadvantages of this imposition have been argued from different perspectives. And this may not be the appropriate forum to further the frontiers of the debate.

Nevertheless, imperialism as it affects communication has impacted the retrogressive communication gap in the continent. Consequently, scholars in the continent cannot easily share experiences and ideas. For example, the scholars in the Arabic, Spanish, French, Portuguese and German-speaking blocs cannot easily communicate with those from the English-speaking blocs. Even though we had aimed at portraying the state of adult and continuing education in the entire continent, our efforts have been limited obviously by the communication gap we have just indicated. Given this weakness, this effort has suffered the same fate as those that preceded it. How? The state of the art in adult and continuing education in Mozambique, Burundi, Central Africa Republic, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Niger, Chad, Mail, Cote de Voir, Senegal, Guinea, Mauritania, Algeria, Libya, Sudan, Morocco, Egypt, to name a few, has not been covered as should have been the case. Thus, we have gone the same way others before us.

Major previous efforts

Before now, there had been a burning desire to portray what is happening in Africa's adult and continuing education. Among the pioneering efforts have been those made by Bown and Tomori (1979) and Bown and Okedara (1981) to take a few examples.

In 1979, the Hutchinson University Library had given expression to the desire by Lalage Bown and Olu Tomori to develop a basic text that could complement the West generated knowledge we had depended upon. Thus, the two scholars got some of the most active academics at the time to write chapters in the text titled *A Handbook of Adult Education for West Africa*. This was supposed to be a text to be used largely in English-speaking Africa countries.

In 1981, Bown and Okedara edited another text in the same line of promoting scholarship relevant to the discipline and to Africa. The text, entitled *An Introduction to the Study of Adult Education: A Multi-Disciplinary and Cross-Cultural Approach for Developing Countries*, adopted a multi-disciplinary approach to the discourse and attracted scholars from almost all of English-speaking Africa.

In 1998, James Draper attempted to further extend the frontiers of the goals the other scholars had sought to achieve. He came up with an edited text titled *Africa: Adult Education Chronologies in Commonwealth Countries*. This important text was intended to highlight the historical landmarks in the development of adult and continuing education in commonwealth Africa. However, it was limited only to 12 English-Speaking African countries.

Outside those exploratory works, many scholars have tried to do country specific studies which led to the publication of important books. It will not be possible to highlight each of these texts one after the other.

But the important contribution these efforts have made to the development of our discipline cannot be under-estimated. For one thing, they have helped immensely in making this field of study and practice to be well understood by many literate and educated Africans. These efforts must have had profound effects. The only limitation is that they have been rather restricted in geographical coverage and depth.

The rationale

The limitations of the previous efforts have meant that we need to have a continent wide portrayal of the state of adult and continuing education. In addition, there are other reasons why we need a continent-wide portrayal of the state of adult and continuing education.

Africa has witnessed major and significant changes in the last 100 years. From a position of massive foreign political domination, many African nations have become independent. Political independence had become the major change in Africa beginning from the 1950s. Political independence had come with some dominant expectations and hopes. Our people had hoped that political independence, for example, would bring more African control of affairs of the nation. It was hoped that independence would induce economic emancipation, equitable distribution of wealth, and control of the factors of production, the eradication of the most common causes of death, fear, ignorance and subjugation. It was hoped that political independence would bring about better, relevant and well-founded systems of education, surer food production, distribution and storage patterns. It was hoped that Africa would witness more political, social and economic growth and democratic participation in the process of national development. Political independence had been expected to give new hope and higher aspirations achievements to our people. But by the end of the 20th century, we now know better.

It is true that Africa has known large-scale political freedom. Indeed, no part of Africa can genuinely be described as still experiencing any known foreign rule. The obnoxious apartheid system in South Africa and Namibia has been uprooted, thanks to the support Africa received from kind heart-hearted and well-intentioned friends globally. Unfortunately, the anticipated harvests from political freedom are yet to be fully felt.

Political independence has been made of little effect by neo-colonialists machinations. The economy has not actually witnessed profound growth for many African nations. Many of these nations have remained largely consumer nations. They have remained disappointingly contented with playing the role of generator of primary commodities that are exported for relatively unimpressive economic returns. We say unimpressive economic returns because apart from these returns being low in value compared with the finished products re-exported to Africa, they are easily wiped out by global market forces.

Political independence has not brought about economic independence. Africa is still grappling with massive unemployment, poverty, ignorance, illiteracy, debt, despondency and all kinds of deprivations. For most of our peoples, the meeting of basic or primary needs is millions of miles away from what is in existence in the First World. Our people are getting "accustomed" to hunger, diseases, pre-mature deaths, spiralling inflation, uncontrolled population growth, crises of significant proportions and marginalisation.

Rather than enjoying the peace that was supposed to have come with independence, Africa has continued to be tormented by all kinds of crises. This includes intense political crisis. Africa has remained a haven for military adventurers that do not only uproot the different nascent experiments in democracy but the emergence of military dictatorships. It is an under-statement for anyone to label the current experiences as the crises of Africa.

Stagnation in all its manifestations has been the unwholesome experience of many African nations. A few

may have witnessed some political and economic growth. For example, Libya, Egypt, Tunisia, Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa, to name but a few, may have witnessed some growth. This might be true. However, for many African nations underdevelopment has become the real description of our economies and people. For many of them, the education systems have gone into decay. They lack the economic means, more or less, to enter into the globalization race that many nations outside Africa are getting into with some element of hope.

For Africa, so many of the thoughts that are being bandied around in the so-called First and Second Worlds do not have much meaning. For Africa, all the hue and cry about globalization, post-modernism, post-fordism, among a host of others concepts, make very little sense. For Africa, our concerns are relatively different. We are concerned about the growing incidence of HIV/AIDS, homelessness, hunger, illiteracy, poverty, marginalisation, exclusionism, inept political leadership, corruption, growing rates of crimes, pandemic and endemic diseases, political instability, irrelevant education, social-economic immobility and emasculated economic systems. But Africa is not about looking for scape-goats.

Scape-goatism implies looking for who to blame for our woes. No, we know who are responsible for our woes. Outwardly, our leaders take the largest chunk of the blame. They stand accused for being selfish, narrow-minded, lacking vision and unmoved by the throes and pains of our people. The leaders stand accused. So also are their collaborators from outside Africa. Those collaborators from outside who keep assuring us "all is well" when in fact "all is not well." They are those who allow our leaders to stash away in foreign banks Africa's wealth when our peoples are dying of hunger. Those who exchange our commodities for guns, knowing fully well that our people will later turn the guns against themselves must accept the blame. Today, Africa has become a major theatre of wars. There are wars being fought in Ethiopia, Eritrea, Somalia, Angola, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone, among others. The Rwanda genocide is now in the books of history. In some instances, there are uneasy situations of calm for example in Liberia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda, and Algeria.

Africa's situation is desperate. While the World is discussing peace, that desirable reality of life seems to be eluding Africa. Hitherto peaceful nations like Cote de Voire and Gambia are beginning to be threatened by forces of division.

Africa has fallen prey to those forces that generate, propel and promote divisions among people. Our differences are emphasized rather than those things that unite us. In many places, there are restrictions on the movement of goods and services. These boundaries and restrictions are expected to be gradually broken down by such regional economic groupings such as the Economic Community of West Africa States (ECOWAS) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Even though these boundaries are getting dismantled in a gradual manner, the propensity of our leaders to be drawn away to see more of our differences is getting equally high. Within nations, the differences among ethnic groups are emphasized for reasons that remain unclear.

Africa's experience at the threshold of a new century is one of grave disappointment in spite of the few signs of hope for the future, which have implications for adult and continuing education. In times like this, it is normal for any discipline that considers itself to be people-driven and/people-oriented to call for stocktaking. That is the major goal that we have targeted in this book with the hope that engaging in stock-taking will lead on to paving the way towards progress, stability and change. In doing this, we are not unaware of the global challenges facing humanity at the beginning of the 21st Century (Kennedy, 2000). Neither are Africans unaware of the concept, content and contexts of postmodernism, post-postmodernism, lifelong learning, learning societies and globalization, internationality and cooperation (Leicester, 2000, Hinzen, 2000, Wain, 2000 Oduaran, 2000a and 2000b). We are very much aware. But we

do know and would want to affirm the desire we have to see our discipline and profession reassess its problems, prospects and relevance at the threshold of the 21st Century.

Structure of the book

In response to Africa's needs and desire to make progress through applying adult and continuing education, this book has been structured along these lines. The book contains five sections in which 21 chapters are presented. Section I addresses the setting of the ideas being portrayed in the book. Section II presents the continental and regional perspectives. Section III is an assemblage of case studies. Section IV gives attention to perspectives that are relevant to Africa but have come from outside Africa. And Section V chronicles the selected works of Jones Akinpelu, one of those to whom this book has been dedicated.

In Section I, Oduaran presents the rationale for the book, whilst Michael Omolewa examines the state of adult and continuing education in the continent. In Section II, Afrik discusses some significant developments in adult and continuing education in sub-Saharan Africa since independence. Then Oduaran analyses the state of research and scholarship in the discipline. Next, Walters and Watters discuss the transition from adult education to lifelong learning in Southern Africa over the last 20 years.

In Section III, a set of robust case studies of the state of adult and continuing education in different parts of Africa are presented. Adekanmbi and Modise highlight the case of Botswana while Nji discusses the application of distance and open learning in Cameroon, and Belotsi and Mutumosi examine adult and continuing education in the DRC. Then Karani highlights research priorities in Kenya just as Manthoto, Braimoh and Adeola appraise the state of adult and continuing education in Lesotho. This Section also reveals the state of the art in adult and continuing education in some rarely highlighted parts of Africa. Here, one is referring to Madagascar, which has been the concern of the discourse by Rabakoarivelo, Harisson and Randariamahaleo. The richness of the Section is further revealed in the discussions of many other Africa nations. While Indabawa discusses the diversity of the provision for adult and nonformal education in Namibia, Tahir examines policy provisions and options for adult and continuing education in Nigeria. Senegal is the subject of the discussion by Kane, South Africa was examined by Groener while Mulenga explores the situation in Zambia. The section concludes with highlights of the state of adult literacy in Zimbabwe by Mopofu.

Given the fact that Africa has been studied by many friends outside the continent, it was impossible to exclude their thoughts and ideas. Consequently, Section IV, dealing with Perspectives from outside Africa, brings together incisive accounts and articulation for a way forward by Fordham, Bhola and Hinzen. Fordham introduces the need for us 'to redefine adult and continuing education in Africa.' Bhola picks up this desire already expressed by Fordham. Bhola settled on the need 'to invent a future for adult education in Africa.' To round up the discussion, Hinzen discusses the crucial factor of international cooperation. The significance of Hinzen's discussion may be best assessed from the point of view of the "dearth" of cooperation that is being experienced in Africa. The reliance on assistance for the progress of Africa is crying for review. Those who had relied for too long on assistance are being told to seriously consider cooperation as a better and more dignifying option. This is what Africa needs to accept in the strong belief that our people should now take their own destiny in their own hands. Sympathy is being repudiated and cooperation trumpeted. These are some of the challenges that Africa must learn to face in the 21st Century.

In Section V, a selection of 44 of the scholarly works of Professor Jones Adedayo Akinpelu, the teacher whose contributions to the development of our discipline in Africa stimulated the thoughts that led to conceptualizing this book, were selectively highlighted by Indabawa[1]. This chapter provides a rich source of reference for all who are interested in examining the direction of the discourse about adult and continuing education in Africa.

Conclusion

Africa has come a long way in the comprehension and application of adult and continuing education to development. Development has been experienced in Africa, and different disciplines are being challenged to prove their relevance to the development process. Since scholars and practitioners in our discipline believe firmly that they have been contributing to development, the time is ripe for a comprehensive review of our efforts in the hope that we can move forward. This is one goal that this book has achieved. There could be obvious gaps in the efforts contained herein but these should only challenge us and those reading our thoughts into further intellectual exploration. Our readers could find out the missing links and pick up from there in the spirit of one of Africa's adage which says that: "When a child falls down, s/he looks forward to the cause of the fall, but, when an adult falls down s/he looks behind to ascertain the cause of the fall."

Notes

[1]While this book project was going on, the Council of the University of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria decided to appoint Professor Akinpelu as Professor Emeritus, in the Department of Adult Education in recognition of his outstanding contributions to the discipline and practice of adult and continuing education in Africa. This is the first such appointment in the discipline in Africa and is a happy coincidence that gives further validity and justification to the dedication of this work to him. Perhaps this book then comes as a befitting celebration of the unique achievement.

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Chapter 2

SETTING THE TONE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Michael A. Omolewa

An Overview

Africa occupies an important position in world development. It covers about a quarter of the world's landmass. In many ways, Africa represents all the worlds, rich and poor, strong and weak, first and third. There is a sense in which the continent may be described as one, in spite of the variety of levels of development, economic circumstances, history, culture and political development. Most of the countries on the continent have witnessed slavery and forced migration across the Saharan desert to North Africa and across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas. Most of the peoples have also gone through frightening experience of racism, colonial domination,exploitation, militarism, despotism and anguish over the years. After years of nationalist movements, African countries had achieved political independence and administrative autonomy. South Africa is the latest to obtain freedom from the obnoxious apartheid policy and operates a multi-cultural democracy. There are still many countries that are still to embrace the modern democratic principles of governance. The Organisation of African Unity, established on 25 May 1963, seeks to address, at the levels of Ministers and Heads of State and Governments, many development issues such as political instability, neo-colonialism,poverty, unemployment, foreign domination and technological backwardness, facing Africa. The Economic Commission for Africa is a United Nations Agency which has also been charged with the task of the rehabilitation of Africa by solving her several development problems and challenges. Africa is currently in an urgent need of a vibrant adult and continuing education programme to address the variety of problems, including the myriad of languages, where Nigeria alone has over 400 major language groups. The issue is how to encourage the promotion of all these languages while still keeping the integrity of the various countries in which they are allocated. Africa also has considerable challenges in nation building, as the coming together of several ethnic groupings have been primarily forced on individual countries. There is the additional problem of militarism, military despotism and the transformation of military despots to civilian political leaders. Poverty is increasingly a dominant issue that must be addressed by adult education, just as the inequity of access to education and the neglect of the minority groups.

Origin and history

Adult and continuing education in Africa began with the creation of man on the continent. It was imperative for those forebears in Africa to provide education for the adult population so as to ensure the survival and the development of skills, integration, group cohesion, societal values and acceptable attitudes. This expectation gave rise to the use of the apprenticeship training programmes which provided an opportunity for the preparation of herbalists, hunters, food-gatherers, security officials, rulers, soldiers, traders and so on.

The length of time for training was by no means uniform and depended on the decision of the master craftsman and leadership of the corps of trainers, the expectation in each of the professions and on the content of instruction. Beyond professional training, there was provision for the building of the community spirit. This was done with the use of religious instruction, working together in team spirit, and having common community issues to resolve. Culture was a special area of interest as the community insisted on respect for tradition, age, language and customs. Adult and continuing education entered into another phase when Muslim clerics introduced Arabic script and the Koran and encouraged Africans to begin to

learn the script and thereafter have access to the Koran. Christian Missionaries also joined in this new adult education activity when the Roman scripts, the Bible and the Hymn books were introduced.

Colonialism brought adult education programmes, especially those which prepared the under reached, out-of-school population for a living through in-service training, evening classes, and correspondence courses. Thus by the end of 19th century, for example in British territories, the London Matriculation Examination of the University of London had been introduced for External students located in the Colonies. Many Africans were prepared for the degree examinations of the University of London on the African soil without leaving the shores of Africa. Their subsequent qualifications provided them with jobs and upward social, economic and political mobility.

The outbreak of World War II encouraged the promotion of liberal education and citizenship training, with the contributions of the Oxford Delegacy for Extra-Mural Studies which began work in Accra Ghana (then the Gold Coast), and later spread to Nigeria, Sierra Leone and East African English speaking countries. The third phase of adult and continuing education work in Africa began with the establishment of Universities and the Departments of Adult Education. Courses were prepared at the Certificate and the Diploma levels, and as from 1971 degree programmes were introduced in African Universities. As from 1974 the Universities introduced higher degree programmes. Today, Departments of Adult Education in the Universities are located in countries such as, Botswana, Lesotho, Uganda, South Africa, Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Kenya, Tanzania, and Namibia, boast of a reputation for research, publication, teaching and service in Adult and Continuing Education.

Legislation and policies

Most countries have come to accept the importance of Adult and Continuing Education training and research in national development. All African countries agree that development could not take place in a comprehensive way unless Adult and Continuing Education is given considerable attention. However few countries have backed up their intention with policy and legislation. Organised labour in particular has benefitted mostly from this development. In South Africa for example, the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) plays a critical role in policy formulation. The National Training Board (NTB) comprised of the unions, the employers and the state provides proposals on policies and programmes. South Africa has adopted the Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) policy which constitutes an important component of the process of developing a joint and equitable system of governance in the new democratic South Africa. Here the National Development of Education has declared its intension to ensure that:

> A literate South Africa within which all its citizens has acquired basic education and training that enables effective participation in socio-economic and political processes to contribute to reconstruction, development and social transformation.

The Government of South Africa has also enshrined the Bill of Rights in her Constitution which enshrines the right of all citizens "to a basic education, including adult basic education, and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible". Government White Paper on Education adopted in 1995 has also stated that "the right to basic education applies to all persons, that is to all children, youth and adults. Basic education is thus a legal entitlement to which every person has a claim". The Nigerian National Policy on Education adopted in 1977 and revised with minor modifications in 1981 has a chapter, which addresses the adult education component of the Education policy. The policy assures all Nigerians of equal assess to education, and provision of

Continuing and Further Education. It pledges the eradication of illiteracy within a limited time and the use of correspondence and Distance Education strategies for the promotion of Life Long Education.

Administration and financing

Most Socialist countries especially Ethiopia and Tanzania made mass education programmes a priority. Ghana under Nkrumah also adopted a populist approach to adult education issues. Most other countries have consistently failed to make substantive contribution to adult education. The quality of financing has thus varied from country to country depending on Government priorities at a point in time. Swaziland and Malawi as well as Lesotho, Burundi and Ethiopia are believed to have a stable literacy rate of over 60 percent. Most other countries are reported in UNESCO Statistics to have a rising literacy rate over a 15-year period.

State, Market and Providers

Provision of adult education in all African countries is not a monopoly of government or of the Ministry of Education. In most cases the Ministries of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, Health, Local Government, National Planning, and Finance are involved. The media, incorporating both the print and the non-print are partners in adult and continuing education delivery by providing publicity and sharing information and ideas on the value of adult and non-formal education for personal and communal growth and development.

Institutions and Organisations

Universities have continued to play an important role in the development of adult and continuing education in African countries. The major departments of Adult Education undertake teaching, research and outreach programmes. At the National University of Lesotho, a part-time B.Ed degree programme in Adult Education is offered by Distance Learning Mode. Similarly the University of Ibadan has an External Studies programme which prepares teachers for the B.Ed. degree to support various activities of Government. Universities also conduct research and encourage practitioners to build research into their various programmes and activities. Universities expect that research will assist in the process of change in various countries, and support the democratic movement. Research in adult education is also designed to promote a continuous dialogue between the subject and the object of research.

In such a situation, both sides become active participants in the process of research. Universities have also continued to have a dominant influence on the development of adult and continuing education. The Department of Adult Education at the University of Ibadan confirmed its leadership position in Africa when it won, in 1989 the UNESCO International Reading Association Literacy Prize. One year later the Institute of Adult Education University of Ghana, Legon was awarded one of the 1990 UNESCO International Literacy Prizes. In South Africa the University of Fort Hare and the Universities of Cape Town and Western Cape have literacy programmes and run community development programmes. The NGOs have increasingly become visible in adult and continuing education work in Africa. These include Churches and missionary organisations, employers' associations, Zonta International, the Soroptimist International, Rotary Club and Boys Brigades. Departments of Education in Ministries of Education of African countries are also important stakeholders in the furtherance of adult and continuing education programme. On some occasions, special units are established to cater for specific adult education programme. For example in Nigeria, a National Commission for Mass Literacy Adult and Non-formal Education was established by decree no. 17 of 1990 to undertake the task of monitoring, coordinating and conducting research related to the promotion of adult and non- formal education in the country. In Botswana a special Department of Non-Formal Education was founded to support the launching of the country's national literacy programme, and coordinate the Non-Formal Education activities of government. In Senegal and Mali, Ministries of Women Affairs and Youth Development play an important

role in the development of adult education.

Provision and Participation

Adult and continuing education in Africa is consistently starved of funding and facilities, and is denied recognition and encouragement by providers. The case in Botswana where about 9% of the total recurrent budget of the Ministry of Education was once allocated to adult education is exceptional. Participation of the adult population has also not always been encouraging. There is ample evidence to confirm that adult and continuing education programmes that do not lead to the award of certificates have failed in most parts of Africa. Participants are motivated by the expectations for improved condition of living following the successful completion of the programmes. Most communities who share the vision of the providers of adult and continuing education have proved capable of sustaining the programmes.

Personnel and Volunteers

The debate has continued over a long period of time as to whether some facilitators should be paid for work in literacy and adult education classes. At a recent meeting hosted by the World Bank in the Republic of Chad it was agreed by representatives from African countries that facilitators make a sacrifice of their time, and not their pockets, and so should be paid a token by either the community or the local government. Personnel in various areas of adult and continuing education work complain of poor pay and slow promotion. Those that are really committed stay on in spite of these obstacles; others leave for greener pastures.

Training and Research

Certificate courses are run in many of the African countries. For example in Sierra Leone, Botswana and Ghana, Universities have a monopoly of running these courses. In Nigeria, in addition to the universities, some institutes, such as the one in Bauchi and Cross River States, are allowed to run Certificate programmes. Diploma and Degree programmes in adult education also are available in most departments of adult education. Research is a necessary condition for the appointment and promotion of staff in the universities. In Botswana Dutch aid has also facilitated the establishment of the Cooperation for Research Development and Education [CORDE] which assists producer cooperatives in the country. Specific research is also funded with assistance from UNICEF, UNESCO and some foreign donors. Research in adult education outside the Universities has however been spasmodic and feeble over the years.

Publication and Documentation

There are many publications on the status of adult and continuing education in Africa spread across the world where interest has been shown on the subject. Some of the key publications listed herewith are only selected and mostly representative.

International Co-operation

A number of organisations have been active in the promotion of adult and continuing education in Africa. One of these, UNESCO, has been active in the area of ideas generation, especially in the determination of scope and vision of adult and continuing education for development. UNESCO was the brain behind the promotion of fundamental education, which triggered off the mass literacy campaigns of the late 1940s and the early 1950s in African countries. UNESCO also served as the instrument through which the Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP) was introduced when functional literacy emerged as a field of practice in Adult Education as from 1965. In addition a number of United Nations specialized agencies, especially the UNDP, UNICEF and UNFPA have been active in the funding and developing programmes especially in literacy, women development, population studies and the girl-child problem in Africa. Recently interest has also been shown in the negative cultural practices in many African countries by these Organizations.

United States funding has come through the USAID and other agencies involved with international development in Africa. In Botswana, USAID has provided support for the training programmes of the Botswana Employers' Federation [BEF] and its successor, the Botswana Confederation of Commerce, Industry and Manpower [BOCCIM]. The British Council, British Department for International Development [DFID] has also invested in the furtherance of adult education in parts of Africa.

The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) have shown considerable interest in the provision of literacy empowerment programmes for women in Africa and livelihood opportunities for young adults in the poorest countries of Africa. The World Bank currently has a major programme in the area of basic education and the provision of livelihood opportunities for young girls in some African countries. The German Adult Education Association has contributed to the development of NGOs in Adult Education in Africa. Through its publication, Adult Education and Development, which is distributed free, its support and grants to NGOs in Africa, its training and equipment, and scholarship provision for Diploma in Adult Education programmes, the German Adult Education Association has invested massively over the years in the development of Adult Education. The European Union and some American organizations, such as the International Foundation for Education and Self-Help (IFESH) which has programmes in Ethiopia, Nigeria, South Africa, Ghana and Sierra Leone, and the Laubach Literacy International which supports programmes in Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Uganda and Zambia, have also invested in the development of Adult Education, with emphasis on the development at the grassroots level.

The United States Agency for International Development has supported Adult Education programmes aimed at raising women's political consciousness. Its Democracy and Governance programmes have proved helpful during the transition programmes in South Africa and Nigeria in recent times. The African Association for Literacy and Adult Education [AALAE] was, until its termination, a constituent member of the International Council for Adult Education [ICAE] located in Ontario, Canada, and was supported by many NGOs in the North including the German Adult Education Association, UNESCO, CIDA, Canada and SIDA Sweden. Technical support and cooperation has also come from some key adult education organisations such as the Laubach Literacy International of the United States.

Future Trends

Africa is faced with a series of challenges, mostly arising from the current globalisation. Unless Africa is able to explore the possibility of developing her adult population to respond to the demands of new technology and professional development, Africa may remain a passive observer living in the 17th century when the whole world moves to the 21st century. Already it is obvious that in many ways Africa and Africans are taken for granted in the resolution of several issues in contemporary world. During the preparation for the Fifth International Conference on adult and continuing education, African countries who assembled in Senegal, the seat of UNESCO Regional Office for Africa, insisted that adult and continuing education on the continent must continue to promote the cultural values of the continent, and assist in establishing a unique identity for Africans. It was also agreed that skill acquisition is an urgent necessity in the face of increased poverty, unemployment and degradation in most African countries. Education for All is also being increasingly adopted by most countries, which now seek to provide free and compulsory education for all the citizens up to age 15. The conference of Ministers of Education of African countries agreed in Durban, South Africa in 1998 that all African countries must intensify efforts at improving the quality and quantity of education delivery on the continent. Information collected by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa confirm that most countries are resolved to explore all opportunities to improve access to education and bring literacy and lifelong learning at the door step of every African. The constraints of funding, lack of continuity of policy, increasing huge debt, problem of gender and language are militating against the political will of the leaders. One consequence of this development is that Africa is still far back in meeting the needs and challenges demanded at the threshold

of a new millennium. Perhaps the emergence of globalization may as well offer the support that will be needed by the continent in the future if the world agrees that a caring and genuinely concerned people should equitably share the wealth of the global village.

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SECTION II : AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

Chapter 3: Significant Post-independence Developments in Adult and Continuing Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
Tai Afrik

Chapter 4: Research and Scholarship in Adult and Continuing Education in Africa
Akpovire Oduaran

Chapter 5: From Adult Education to Lifelong Learning in Southern Africa Over the Last Twenty Years
Shirley Walters and Kathy Watters

Chapter 3

SIGNIFICANT POST INDEPENDENCE DEVELOPMENTS IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Tai Afrik

Introduction

Faced with huge tensions between the global and the local, between the universal and the individual, between tradition and modernity, between the need for competition and the concern for equality of opportunity, between the extraordinary expansion of knowledge and the human beings' capacity to assimilate it and between the spiritual and the material, adult education of post independent Africa within the framework of the four previous International Conferences on Adult Education in Elsinore (1949), Montreal (1960), Tokyo (1972) and Paris (1985) and in keeping with the recommendations on the development of adult education passed in 1976 by the UNESCO General Conference in Nairobi, Kenya as well as in conformity with the resolutions of the following regional and World Conferences, the Harare Conference of Ministers (MINEDAF V. 1982), the Jomtien Conference on Basic Education for All in 1990 and the Beijing World Conference in 1995, Adult Education has entered the twenty-first century with a significant momentum of hope, frustration and challenge.

It is against this background that this Chapter will examine the issue of post-independence developments and their impact of adult education in its ramifications in Africa. In this regard, this chapter will examine the concept of adult education, establish the state of the art of adult education since 1957 when Ghana became independent by examining the major adult education programmes at regional, national and community levels, their main objectives, resources and activities; consider the major results (positive and negative) from these programme; their impact on national development and postulate possible trends for adult education during the 21st Century within the context of the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education which took place in Hamburg, Germany in July 1997.

Finally, this topic will be covered within the geographical space of Sub-Saharan Africa which excludes all north African Arab countries with the exception of the Sudan.

Concepts

Concerning concepts, I would like to divide the term *adult education* into two broad categories: traditional or indigenous adult education and contemporary adult education.

Impact

Impact refers to the attitudinal changes that are manifested by the target group of programmes or projects concerning knowledge and skills, for example, the use of calculation skills by neoliterates in their petty businesses.

Traditional adult education

According to the literature, Fafunwa (1974) states that:

> "the aim of traditional African education is multilateral and the end objective is to produce an individual who is honest, respectable, skilled, co-operative and conforms to the social order of the day."

Omolewa (1985) noted that:

> "traditional education was done out-of-school essentially at home, the centre of character training and base for the introduction to vocational education."

Omolewa (1985) further pointed out that:

> "the emphasis in traditional society was on the integration of all aspects of education, formal, non-formal and informal"

Bockarie (1991) mentioned that:

> "prolonged formal aspects of indigenous education exist and these take place in organized groups in fixed and secluded places under guidance of acceptable instructors. In Sierra Leone, there are numerous bush schools or secret societies, such as the « bondo », the « poro », the « wonde » and the « soko bana »."

It is important to note that in the present teaching and learning process, the largest number of adult learners still operate in traditional adult education which still has its merits of a strong code of conduct, cultural relevance based on the philosophy of learning –by-doing (apprenticeship) which starts from early childhood to the grave.

Concerning contemporary adult education, Okedara (1996) defined it as:

> "All educational activities arranged for adults without any legal compulsion."

On the other hand, Dave and Ouane of U.I.E. (Hamburg) maintain that adult education should seek to redress the imbalance of education received during childhood and youth. They further maintain that earlier education is « inadequate to save oneself from professional as well as cultural obsolecence during the later period of life ».

UNESCO (1994) considers adult education:

> "to cover all organized educational activities provided for people who are not in the regular school and university system and who are generally fifteen or older."

UNESCO underscores the aspect of age when it refers to adult learners who are defined on the basis of maturity and responsibility. In other words, the word adult is not considered in terms of only those who have attained 18 or 21 years of age who have voting rights. In the African context, an adult is one who is mature and has adult responsibility such as being married with children.

Developments since 1960

At the international level since 1960, when many African States became independent, the three major World Conferences on Adult Education held in Montreal in 1960, Tokyo in 1972 and Paris 1985 addressed significant issues such as universal literacy, establishing peace and international co-operation, creating a genuine spirit of democracy, increasing learning opportunities for all age groups and promoting gender equality. Consequently in the 1960s, the emphasis was to support developing countries in adult education

mainly from africa. During the 1970's, the emphasis in adult education was placed on access and equality, along with such issues like population policies and programmes for the protection of the environment. In the 1980s and after the Paris Conference in 1985, the main programmes advocated were in literacy, promoting women's education, linking formal and non-formal education in the perspective of life-long learning, the impact of the modern media on learning and the need for creativity and innovation in adult learning. The same programmes were reinforced by the Jomtien World Conference on Basic Education for All which brought four major agencies together (UNESCO, World Bank, UNDP and UNICEF) as well as member states and other NGOs to map out the following five areas of concern such as:

a) universalizing access and promoting equity
b) focusing on learning
c) broadening the means and scope of basic education
d) enhancing the environment for learning
e) strengthening partnerships.

In 1995, the Beijing Conference re-enforced all the earlier recommendations on gender equality and empowerment of women and men.

In Africa, when Ghana became independent in 1957 and launched its mass leteracy drive, it was only in the early 1960s that a large number of African member states of the OAU became independent that adult education started to gain momentum through the Addis Ababa plan of Action on education in 1961. Since then, there have been several Conferences of Ministers of Education and those Responsible for Economic Affairs (MINEDAF CONFERENCES) such as the one that passed the Lagos Plan of Action on Education which was followed by the Monrovia Plan of Action. All these Plans of Action on Education emphasized, inter alia the eradication of illiteracy and the setting-up of women and girls programmes.

The most significant Regional Conference was MINEDAF V which was held in Harare, Zimbabwe in 1982 when the Conference authorized the Director-General of UNESCO to launch a Regional programme in order:

> "to promote the eradication of illiteracy in Africa before the end of the century by a two-pronged approach for the generalization and renovation of primary education and literacy programmes for adults."

The Regional Programme was actually launched in 1984 by UNESCO with a membership of 42 Sub-Saharan African countries. To date, membership has increased to 45 countries. A similar declaration was adopted concerning post-literacy. At the Nairobi General Conference of UNESCO in 1976, Resolution 1.91 was adopted and it empowered the Director-General of UNESCO to set up:

> " a programme of activities with a view... to encourage strategies and methods for literacy teaching and for post-literacy activities... calling on the broadest possible participation of the population concerned".

The year 1990 was declared by the UNITED NATIONS as International Literacy Year and this was followed by the Internationl Literacy Decade (1990-2000). At the National and Community levels, the responses to all these international and regional resolutions have been different in emphasis. Based on the various colonial eduction systems of the English, French and Portuguese, the independent african countries followed the colonial patterns in these countries in adult education. The anglophone african coutries set up infrastructure such as departments of adult education either in the Ministry of Education or that of Social Welfare and Community Development. Departments of Extra-Mural Studies and Adult

Education were set up at National Universities which trained personnel at certificate, diploma and postgraduate levels. In terms of adult education prgrammes, the main focus has been to date on functional literacy and post-literacy targeting both sexes especially women as evident in about 17 English-speaking-African countries such as Tanzania, Ethiopia, Liberia, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Malawi, Ghana, Nigeria, the Gambia to name a few.

The second programme in terms of importance is the Continuing Education and Extension Programmes such as health education, population education, family life education, environmental education, political and civic education and so on. At present, there is a move towards an integrated approach under poverty alleviation programmes, where non-formal education or adult education departments are cooperating with line ministries to implement a community based programme. The third type of programme is distance education by radio, T.V. and correspondence courses through distance and open learning. This provision has just started to gather momentum with support from the Commonwealth of Nations and other multilateral agencies. A number of countries such as South Africa, Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya, Botswana, Swaziland, have already set-up institutions to pursue this goal.

In francophone and lusophone african countries, the scenario of adult education is a little different. They have literacy for adults and the promotion of national languages as the anglophone countries. However, they lack departments of adult education and literacy in their universities. As a result, the personnel of their literacy departments are mainly primary school teachers and inspectors who have no specialized training in adult education. The Directorates of Literacy or Basic Education are mainly concerned with functional literacy programmes. They do not coordinate continuing education and extension programmes which are left to the line ministries concerned. In adult education, there are no distance education prgrammes or open universities. In other words, their adult education programme is centred on only adult literacy and post-literacy as well as the promotion of national languages.

Objectives

The objectives of adult education programmes are generally taken as six-fold:

- to develop policies, plans and strategies
- to train and retrain personnel
- to conduct action research
- to develop curricula and didactic materials
- to promote information flow
- to mobilize and sensitize public opinion.

The Regional programme for the eradication of illiteracy and the follow-up action to the Jomtien Conference on *Basic Education for All* have tried to implement the six objectives mentioned above in all member states in sub-saharan Africa. National Conferences or « Etats Generaux » have prepared national plans and master plans on education for both formal and non-formal education. They have adopted policies and strategies which aim at building capacity, cultural renewal and sustainability of adult education programmes at grass root levels.

Concerning training of personnel, the francophone and lusophone countries do short term training courses in country at seminars and workshops but long term training courses in adult education are done abroad. For the English speaking African countries, all training is available in-country from certificate to post-graduate degree courses.

As far as action-research is concerned, not much has been done in this area in the entire sub-region. There is a felt need to strengthen this area.

In the domain of curriculum and didactic materials in literacy and post-literacy, the Anglophone countries are well ahead in this area. This is so because the concept of curriculum development in non-formal education is virtually absent in Francophone and Lusophone countries since didactic materials are produced without a curriculum framework. A large number of reading materials such as primers, posters, educational games, comics, drama, instructional materials, do-it-yourself books are produced in anglophone african countries. However, in francophone and lusophone countries, the reading materials are few and they are mainly primers.

At National level in anglophone and francophone countries, there are rural presses and journals (newsletters) for the dissemination of information such as in Mali - « Kibaru » and Tanzania – « Uhuru, ukalima wa Kisasa». Some countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, the Gambia, Ivory Coast, Swaziland, Mauritius and Madagascar have F.M. radio stations specifically for the dissemination of educational messages to rural communities. The use of newswalls is becoming fashionable in a number of countries such as the Gambia, Mali. In the Lusophone African countries, there are no rural presses and newsletters in national languages. However, things have started to improve in Angola and Mozambique where adult literacy programmes have started to gather momentum.

In the area of mobilization and sensitization of public opinion, the Francophone African countries have set up an elaborate system known as « animation rurale », that is, rural animation which deals with social mobilization of all stakeholders of the literacy project at grass root level. They use mass meetings, home visits, person-to-person contacts, newspapers, radio, T.V. etc in order to animate their target group. On the other hand, the Anglophone African countries are engaged in mobilization during the launching of new projects in adult education. All participating countries of the Regional Programme for the Eradication of Illiteracy in Africa celebrate International Literacy Day on the 8 September each year.

National languages

The vehicle of literacy is through the use of National languages. In many sub-Saharan countries, there is a clutter of national languages which cover the national territory of each member state. In Ethiopia, there are 15 national languages that cover the language map of that country. In Senegal, there are six national languages.

Arabic is a language which serves the needs of Muslims and is also used for day-to-day transactions. This language is widely used by children and adults alike. There are many Koranic schools which are grafted almost smoothly to African traditional education. It has become an integral part of African pedagogy. Beside its religious function, Islamic education has contributed to the promotion of writing and literature and to the reduction of illiteracy in Africa through the use of arabic script. Islamic education is the least alienating than other types of education since it promotes cultural identity.

Some of the shortfalls of the system of collecting statistics on literacy at national level is the failure of the system to include those who become literate in Arabic script. Koranic education on the other hand has failed to evolve or adapt to the socio-economic context of Africa South of the Sahara.

Resource

Resources can be seen as financial, human and material. In this regard, adult education is the poorest partner in education when it comes to the sharing of the national education cake. Financial allocations to adult education from national governments and non-governmental organizations have been mainly for salaries of staff and other basic overhead costs. However, very little funds are given for programming of adult education activities such as training, research, development of curricula and didactic materials and so on.

Since Jomtien, there has been a new wave of funding sources from the four partners: UNDP, the World Bank, UNESCO and UNICEF as well as from other bilateral and multilateral donors such as Funds-in-Trust, IFOMA, DANIDA, CORD, CIDA, SIDA, IIZ/DVV., BMZ, Islamic Call Bank, ADB and ISESCO to name a few. It is interesting to note that over the past 6 years, the World Bank has financed in a substantial manner adult literacy programmes especially for women and girls in Ghana, Uganda, the Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Mali, UNICEF also has set-up its own literacy programme with education specialists in almost all its country offices where it targets women and girls. The other UN agencies such as UNFPA, ILO, UNHCR, et. are also engaged in the provision of adult education and literacy related to their specialization.

These projects financed by external donors also received personnel in the form of short and long term consultations. The tendency at present is that countries are asking for National execution machanism which means national experts are usually recruited to back-stop these projects.

Materials for these projects are procured in time and sent to the various countries concerned. These materials are usually non-expendable materials. All expendable materials are bought locally.

Methods of evaluation of adult and continuing education programmes

The outcomes of the three major adult education programmes will be evaluated as follows:

i. Functional Literacy, post-literacy and the promotion of national languages

This programme of adult literacy is set within the framework of two sub-programmes: the Regional programme for the Eradication of Illiteracy in Africa and the follow-up Action programme on Basic Education for All (EFA). Since we are evaluating the adult literacy and non-formal education component in both sub-programmes, the following areas were assessed: the literacy situation in percentages by regions, the three main categories of countries and their literacy rates by percentages and a brief comparative case study of literacy in Tanzania, Mali and Sierra Leone.

ii. Continuing Education and Extension programmes

Since there are no adequate statistical data on such programmes, the evaluation will be centred on the effectiveness of existing programmes through the integrated approach.

iii. Distance Education and Open Universities

The evaluation would be based on the effectiveness of existing programmes since there are no statistical data available.

Results

The evaluation of literacy rates by region is given by UNESCO in table 1 for both sexes, for males and females for the years 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010. However, it must be noted that these percentages are rough estimates based on population census figures and projections. The average literacy rate in Asia improved considerably from 60.7 percent in 1980 to an estimated 72.3 percent in 1995 and it was expected that at least three quarters of the adult population on this continent would be literate by the year 2000. Africa, with only 39.8% literacy in 1980 crossed the 50% literacy mark in 1990 but still lags behind all the other continents by a wide margin, with an estimated literacy rate of 56.2% in 1995. Please see table 1 attached as annex 1.

The second parameter for the evaluation of all literacy programmes in the region by country was done by dividing all sub-Saharan states into three main categories of countries such as:

1. **Category A countries – with 70 – 100% literacy rate in 1995.**

1. Cape Verde	71.6
2. Congo (Brazzaville)	74.9
3. Equatorial Guinea	78.5
4. Kenya	78.1
5. Lesotho	71.3
6. Mauritius	82.9
7. Swaziland	76.7
8. Tanzania	76.0
9. Democratic Republic of Congo	77.3
10. Zambia	78.2
11. Zimbabwe	85.1

2. **Category B countries – 50 – 69% literacy rate in 1995**

1. Botswana	69.8
2. Cameroon	63.4
3. Central African Republic	60.0
4. Comores	57.3
5. Gabon	63.2
6. Ghana	64.5
7. Guinea bissau	54.9
8. Malawi	56.4
9. Nigeria	57.1
10. Rwanda	60.5
11. Togo	51.7
12. Uganda	61.8

3. **Category C countries with 1 – 49% literacy rate in 1995**

1. Benin	37.0
2. Burkina Faso	19.2
3. Burundi	35.3
4. Chad	48.1
5. Ivory Coast	40.1
6. Djibouti	46.2
7. Ethiopia	35.5
8. Gambia	38.6
9. Guinea	35.9
10. Liberia	38.3
11. Mali	31.0
12. Mauritania	37.7
13. Mozambique	40.1
14. Niger	13.6
15. Senegal	33.1
16. Sierra Leone	31.4
17. Sudan	46.1

Countries with unknown rates:

1. Angola
2. Madagascar

3. Sao Tome and Principe
4. Somalia
5. South Africa
6. Seychelles

Source: UNESCO (1995) ***Compendium of statistics on Illiteracy-Paris***: UNESCO

There are 17 member states which have scored below 50% as well as six additional countries which are most likely to be in Category C because of the social problems existing in these countries such as Somalia, South Africa, Angola. This gives a total of 23 member states below the 50% mark. It further means that out of forty six member states in the region, 23 are below an acceptable literacy rate of 50% after the mid-term evaluation of Basic Education for All at the end of 1995.

The third parameter for the evaluation of some literacy programmes in Tanzania, Mali and Sierra Leone is to do a comparative study of their literacy programmes to look at the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the three country programmes.

Modality	**Tanzania**	**Mali**	**Sierra Leone**
1. Strategy	Mass Campaign	Mass Campaign	Selective/intensive
2. No. of national languages used	(1) Kiswahili	(4) Mandinka, Bambara Peul, Tamaskeh&Songaï	(4) Mende, Temne, Krio and Limba
3. Philosophy	Ujaama	Ruralization	Self-help
4. Political Will	Very evident	Evident	Absent
5. Structure	Centralized	Decentralized	Decentralized
6. Gender sensitive	Evident	Evident	Not evident
7. Mobilization	Very evident	Very evident	Not evident
8. Reading materials	Sufficient	Inadequate	Very inadequate
9. Voluntarism	Very high	Not evident	Not evident
10. Curriculum	Evident	Evident	Not present
11. Rural press Newspaper	Uhuru, Ukulima	Kibaru	None
12. Literacy rates	1977 – 73% 1993 – 90.4% 1995 – 76%	1977-10% 1993-32% 1995 – 31%	1977-10% 1993-30% 1995 – 31.4%
13. Financial input	Very significant from local And external donor agencies	Not significant	Minimal

Source: UNESCO (1994) ***Education For All: Statistics and Trends***, Paris: UNESCO

This comparative study of Tanzania, Mali and Sierra Leone shows that there are a number of qualitative inputs which make for the success of a mass literacy campaign as was evident in Tanzania. With poor qualitative inputs for Mali and Sierra Leone, it is not surprising that these countries are lagging behind many other countries in the region.

Women

The progress made by women and girls in becoming literate has been very limited as evident in this quotation:

> "Although the rates of the eradication of illiteracy among women have increased in all the developing areas since 1990, more than half of the women in Sub-

Saharan Africa, in the Arabic speaking countries and
in South Asia are illiterates" 1.

Despite the significant progress realized by women in the reduction of illiteracy rates by 19 points between men and women, it is abvious that illiteracy affects women more than men. Less than half of the women as (opposed to 56.2% for men) are literate at present in Africa and their literacy rate is below 25% in many countries.

The most impressive in terms of gender balanced in the drop of illiteracy rate among the both sexes is found in East and Southern African Countries such as South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Sao Tome and Principe, Swaziland, Namibia, Kenya and Uganda. There was a general drop in the literacy rate of women aged 15 years and above between 1990 and 1995 in Africa, especially and the following countries: Mali, Liberia, Botswana, Senegal, Niger, Ivory Coast and Burundi (UNESCO, 1995).

Comparative evolution of literacy

Here is a comparative analysis of literacy rates established between 1990 and 1995 in Sub-Sahara Africa:

- Countries whose rates have fallen : Senegal, Ivory Coast, Burundi, Botswana, Mali, Niger.
- Countries whose rates have practically stagnated (from + 1% to + 5%) : Angola, Burkina Faso, Mauritius, Madagascar, Somalia.
- Countries whose literacy rates have increased sharply (as from 15%) Congo (Brazzaville), Guinea Bissau, Central Africa Republic, Sudan, Chad, Zimbabwe.

With respect to the eradication of illiteracy among women:

- Countries, whose literacy rates have simply increased: Congo (Brazzaville), Guinea Bissau, Equatorial Guniea, Kenya, Chad, Sudan
- Countries whose rates are almost equal for both sexes or in favour of women: South Africa, Malawi, Uganda, Botswana, Lesotho.
- Countries with balanced rates for both sexes: Kenya, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Madagascar, Rwanda, Gabon, Seychelles, Tanzania, Namibia, Mauritius .
- Countries where the rate is lowest for women: Chad, Guinea, Mauritania.

However, this classification is based on data which are not reliable and so difficult to interpret adequately.

Countries[1]	**Availability of Poverty Alleviation Programme**	**Types of Programme**
1. Tanzania	Yes	Integrated
2. Gambia	Yes	Integrated
3. Guinea	No	Not integrated
4. Mali	Yes	Integrated
5. Nigeria	Yes	Integrated
6. Angola	No	Not integrated
7. Guinea Bissau	No	Not integrated
8. Sierra Leone	No	Integrated
9. Mozambique	No	Not integrated
10. Senegal	Yes	Not integrated

Source: The World Bank (1997) ***World Development Report, Washington***: The World Bank

In all the ten countries mentioned above, there are continuing education and extension programmes such as political and civic education, health education, environmental education. However, to be effective, these programmes ought to be integrated in operational terms. We notice that where there are poverty alleviation

programmes, the integrated approach is used. As a result, since there are less numbers of countries with poverty alleviation programme, then this programme, although it is functional in all countries concerned, is also riddled with duplication and wastage at grassroot level. Almost two-thirds of the resources allocated for this programme are used up by officials of the executing agencies for capacity building in the form of training courses (seminars, workshops, etc), study visits, research, procurement of vehicles etc. and only one third or less goes to the target group (the adult learners). This area of who benefits from project funds must be investigated further.

Distance education and open University

There has been great interest in the setting up of distance education programmes and open universities over the past five years in the African region. Within this period and even before, the following countries have set-up distance education programmes: Kenya, Swaziland, Lesotho, Botswana, South Africa, Tanzania, Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Namibia. There are also many other countries which have planned to establish such a programme: Sierra Leone, Gambia, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Senegal, Uganda, Malawi.

The value of distance education programmes is felt in area of access to education for workers who are highly motivated to succeed in various courses. The enrolment of the existing distance teaching programmes has continued to rise sharply in Tanzania, Kenya and South Africa. In the next ten years, this programme will become a high impact area because of the stress on adult learning while learners are employed. However, it is regrettable that there are no adequate statistical data in this domain at present.

Impact

The impact of the three major types of programmes: functional literacy and post-literacy as well as the promotion of National languages, Continuing Education and Extension Services and Distance Education and Open Universities, has started to be felt in all policy meetings at international, regional and national levels. The attitudes of national planners of the education sub-sector have been reinforced in the validity of these programmes in order to arrest the downward trend in national development in all the countries faced by severe poverty. Adult education as manifested by these programmes has a positive role to play in order to alleviate poverty and to contribute to socio-economic development at community level.

The impact was greatly felt in the area of adult education in the African region as shown by the three categories of OAU Member States. It was shown that twenty three member states in the region have attained literacy rates of 50% and above. This case study of the Regional programme for the Eradication of Illiteracy in Africa and the follow-up programme on Basic Education for All has demonstrated that given the political will and commitment at national level, illiteracy should possibly be eradicated by the year 2015. The momentum on integrated non-formal education programmes such as continuing and distance education will continue to increase under the poverty alleviation programme. However, one has to underscore the need for these programmes to be integrated and expanded so that they will continue to make the necessary impact on knowledge, skills and attitudes of the target beneficiaries with particular emphasis on women.

The target beneficiaries must really access the benefits of development by their active participation, ownership and sustainability of such programmes. It is against this background that the poverty alleviation programme was set-up to use integrated approach for cultural renewal of the education system and for national development.

Oustanding problems

Despite the increase in allocations to the education sector in Africa, these allocations are still low in relation to the demand for education in a good number of countries. Many countries are in a prolonged crisis such as civil wars in the Great Lake Countries: Sierra Leone, Angola, Congo (Brazzaville), Sierra Leone, Liberia, etc.

- Lack of control over costs of education and lack of a durable financing policy (from private sector and financing partners).
- Insufficient number of qualified personnel
- Poor quality of education of existing staff/personnel
- Insufficiency in equipment and media involvement.

Trends

The Fifth World Conference on Adult Education has set the pace on its theme: "Adult learning : the key to the twenty-first century". This theme was complemented by the report of Jacques Delors on "learning: the Treasure within". The future of adult education in Africa is based on adult learning. As the report mentioned, the emphasis will be on:

- Learning to live together
- Learning to know
- Learning to do
- Learning to be

In other words, Africa must become a *learning society* where everyone from the cradle to the grave is learning, not for the sake of learning but learning to live together, to know, to do and to be.

Notes

[1] UNESCO, 1996 – Sub-Saharan Africa, years after Jomtien

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Chapter 4

RESEARCH AND SCHOLARSHIP IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Akpovire Oduaran

Introduction

Paramount to the growth of any discipline and indeed, nation and organization is research and scholarship. In fact, how well any discipline will become relevant and worthy of attention and the investment of scare resources should depend, to a large extent, on the quantity and quality of its research and scholarship. Fortunately, adult and continuing education researchers, scholars and practitioners are very much aware of this reality.

In 1994, researchers, scholars and practitioners meeting in Montreal, Canada under the auspices of the UNESCO institute for Education emphasized the important role research must and should play in advancing the frontiers of adult and continuing education in the world. And, this is in terms of exploring how adult and continuing education research and scholarship could be applied to development processes. This is so because research based knowledge should be more effective in terms of application.

Adult and continuing educators and educationists in Africa fully realise what UNESCO sought to achieve in hosting the Montreal, Canada meeting. For from 3rd to 7th December, 1995, the Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan in collaboration with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (BREDA) based in Dakar, Senegal, co-sponsored and organized a seminar which was geared towards examining the state of adult education research in Africa (Omolewa et al., 1998). Part of the objectives expressed at that meeting was the desire to ensure that research and scholarship in adult and continuing education is injected into the improvement and resolution of problems, progress and development in Africa. Much more than merely achieving such an objective, the sponsors of the seminar had hoped that adult and continuing education scholars, researchers and practitioners in Africa could be brought together to articulate more regularly and collectively strategies for applying research and scholarship in the discipline. It was and pasted that doing so should would ensure effective entry of Africa into a world community that is witnessing more and more globalization of scientific, technological, socio-economic and political processes.

It is now five years since the 1995 *Ibadan Africa Adult Education* meeting. In the years before and after 1995, the communication gap between colleagues in the different language blocs in Africa has painfully remained. For example, the 1995 Ibadan meeting did not succeed, much as the organizers would have wished, in bringing into the center stage of discussions, researchers, scholars and practitioners from the Portuguese, French and Arabic-specking blocs in Africa. Even from within the English-speaking African countries, there was not too wide a representation. This is not unexpected. Africa has been inundated by profound economic and political crisis. Indeed, the debt burden is such that sub-Saharan Africa is heavily dependent on international assistance or inputs in the conduct of research which is normally based on bilateral and multilateral cooperation and partnership (Afrik,1998). As Africa makes significant steps to get out of the chaotic socioeconomic and political crisis that has held it almost prostrate for many decades, one might be hopeful that research and scholarship in adult and continuing education may be better appreciated and funded. When that time arrives, it might be possible as well to bridge the wide communication gap among the major language blocs.

In spite of the restrictions imposed on the quality of this present discussion by the circumstances just described above, it is still possible to attempt a summary analysis of the state of research and scholarship in adult and continuing education in Africa. For one thing, the limited analysis of the work that is being done in our discipline is capable of helping us to pick up the missing links. Then and then alone can we plan the way forward in the furtherance of future research and scholarship.

The valuable analysis of the state of research and scholarship in our discipline must be systematically done. Hence, there is a need for one to specify the approach adopted in exploring the field.

The approach

In the absence of Africa based abstracting and indexing services in adult and continuing education, any one will naturally be attracted to or rely on whatever literature one can lay hands on. But this can hardly be sufficient for the standard anticipated in a book of reading of this nature.

Therefore, the only solution for overcoming the limitation is first to do a library search. Unfortunately, the search undertaken in the course of exploring the field yielded limited results. This is why one had to rely to the Internet. Valuable as this approach has been, it had its own problems.

In conducting this research on the internet, we have had to rely on the paths laid down by Chadwick (1999). Let us take some time to describe these paths in order for any reader to determine the quality of this approach. Normally, researchers consult libraries, books, journals, CD-ROMs and commercial online databases. Right now, the Internet has brought together these database in one unit of operation. It has become a significant pathway to different sites that have relevant information.

Chadwick (1999) has made it known that much of the information that can be found on the Internet can equally be found by travelling other paths. Even so, it might be faster, less expensive and/or easier to travel other paths instead of the Internet. One other limitation of the Internet is that all the information you need may be available, and this has really been proven in our search.

Working from the hindsight of the guidelines offered by Chadwick (1999), we embarked on a prolonged search of the Internet using the Google engine. This search yielded 7,150 matches on the subject of the current state of research and scholarship in adult and continuing education in Africa. After sieving through the matches, we were able to identify just a little over 25 Africa related material. This was far inadequate for our analysis. Further search was done from sources in the main library at the University of Botswana, it has been possible to identify and select a few relevant pieces of information. The searches made yielded the data that made this analysis possible.

Direction of research

A survey of the literature on the subject relevant that before the 1990s, the classical/traditional research approach dominated the studies have been implemented. This is perhaps not unexpected because the bulk of researchers who treasure and adopt this approach came from the academic community. Such academics frequently lay claim to objectivity, reliability, validity and standard procedures. Unfortunately, the volume of findings which have resulted from the use of this approach hardly get through to the practitioners who really need to apply them to practice. This is the sad experience which both Omolewa (1992) Afrik (1998) and Mpofu (1998) have lamented.

From about 1995, African researchers in the field of adult education have been encouraged to cultivate and promote the participatory and transformative research approaches. Both approaches have been tested and "praised" for putting the "ownership" and "control" of research in the hands of the community people as they strive to deal with community problems.

The participatory research approaching particular, has been emphasized as a veritable means of "relegitimizing people's knowledge" as their capacity to engage in research is continuously refined in the process (Afrik, 1998:14). And the transformative research approach which had been a major theme in the discoursed by Paulo Freire has come on stage to strengthen further the gain brought in by the participatory.

The transformative research approach which stresses critical reflection, dialogue and praxis has sharpened the need for the positive utilization of the product of research. It is a dynamic and humanistic approach which Africa has been trying very hard to apply to its process of social change. It has been emphasized probably because of its appeal to the need to create in the local people intense critical awareness of the power may and power relationships that have tended to dictate the quantity and quality of life that is available to them at any given point in time.

Transformative research approach should have much attraction to Africans because of the several decades of inequality and social injustice a significant proportion have had to experience, and this is unfortunately so.

Before the era of propagation of transformative research approaches, the survey of literature revealed a concentration on adult literacy. This is not surprising for the continent harbors the world's second largest population of illiterates. Within the context of this research concentration, studies on demographic characteristics, geographical space and participation have been predominant.

Coming next to research in literacy are the numerous attempts scholars in Africa have been making to articulate the provision of distance learning. It is not equally surprising that scholars have shown immense interest in distance learning. It is not equally surprising that scholars have shown immense interest in distance learning. The continent is presently experiencing very acute problems in the gap between space and the number of people who qualify for admission. For example, in the 2000/2001 academic year, the University Of Botswana received over 12,000 applications for admission. More than 80% of the 12,000 applicants were qualified but the University was unable to absorb up to a third of the figure. That is what prevails in most parts of Africa, especially Nigeria. In the face of such difficulties distance learning becomes very handy, and that explains why it is receiving research and funding attention.

After distance learning professional continuing education gets a significant research attention. The rate of change in the world requires rapid re-learning on the part of professionals. The only way Africa can successfully harvest the grains inherent in professional continuing education is to devote research policy and funding inputs into its development as a veritable aspect of adult education.

Like continuing education, women's empowerment, income generation, extra-mural studies, gender and community development and education are receiving significant research attention as well. Even though it might be impossible to highlight all the findings that have emerged there from in all these cases, it is important to note the big role. University adult and continuing education is playing in research, this has been one of the guarantees of continuous engagement in research.

Thus far, sociological and psychological, environmental and computer focused, nomadic education research studies have not been too profound. So also are sustained studies on trends in participation in the different programmes. But it is encouraging to observe that the frontier in lifelong learning has been growing slowly but steadily. For all cases, the summary of the direction in which research is moving might be rewarding.

In the sphere of literacy research Omolewa (1980, 1984), Youngman (1985), Attwood (2000), Daniels

(2000) and many other African scholars too numerous to name, have given us some insight into what has prevailed to date beginning from the 1980s.
Distance education has been an area of research for many scholars. The foundation of studies into distance education in Africa has been laid by Omolewa in the 1970s. But this foundation has been built upon by several other scholars among whom are Adekanmbi (1999), Braimoh (2000), among others. These scholars have been studying how distance learning provides effective alternative modes to school-based learning in Africa.

Professional continuing education has been the major area of research by the scholar to whom this book has been dedicated. I refer to Professor Jones A. Akinpelu. He has been a pioneer in this area of research and scholarship and has been ably followed along the path by others who are combing equally well the exciting aspects of extra-mural studies and work place training. Again, this is a growing field which has attracted the attention of many other scholars, including Fasokun (1981) and Groener (2000) in the context of Africa.

Among the other less researched fields of gender, prison education, women empowerment, income generating projects and psychology, community education and development appear to have attracted some attention. Youngman and Maruatona (1998) have shown particular interest in extension workers and building on earlier works done by Okeem (1972), Karani (1984) and Anyanwa (1988). As government funding of community development may dwindle with the immense economic difficulties being experienced in Africa, research in this area might become more sustained and vigorous. The other less researched fields in nomadic education pioneered by Chike Ezeoma and extended by Gidado Tahir as well as that of prison education pioneered by Evakuoma Enuku are expected to receive a boost in Africa.

In spite of this challenging initial probing effort, there are numerous gaps in the picture. I have tried to paint of research in adult and continuing education in Africa. The first of such gaps has been the relatively profound difficulties I have experienced in getting a rich source of information, which could enlighten our analysis. The second stems from the relatively slim nature of incisive research attributes in Africa adult and continuing education. Much of the research that has been done appears to have been geared towards the award of diplomas and degrees. A relatively slim proportion of the research are undertaken by scholars struggling hard to apply themselves in the academic context of "publish or perish." Moreover, Mpofu (1998) has lamented the obvious research - practice gap that should have been attached to research.

In spite of the weaknesses that have been inadvertently allowed in the analysis above, some scholars have been laboring to identify "academic lighthouses" in the largely unexplored vast "ocean" of research possibilities in Africa. For example, James Draper has recently edited a useful entry titled *Africa: Adult Education Chronologies in Commonwealth Countries*. At the same time, Oduaran has applied his research interests to identifying research directions as well as the application of the computer to the improvement of the field in Africa (Oduaran, 1985, 1989, 1991, 1993 and 1999). Even if incisive research in the field has been slim, the scholarship is exceptional. It is rewarding to summarize the focus of this scholarship thus far.

Direction of scholarship

Scholarship and research are inseparable. Thus, what we are attempting to do here is to summarize the writings by different scholars that have bordered more on theoretical analysis. As the case was with research, there has been no pretence towards having done an exhaustive search of literature and information source. This obvious gap can really render useless our intention. The weakness inadvertently tolerated in this brief analysis, notwithstanding there has been profound and vigorous scholarship by scholars from inside and outside Africa. In this regard, the usual "friends" of Africa in the profession of

adult education have been very active.

Lalage Bown could almost be described as the "mother" of adult and continuing education research and scholarship in Africa. Having spent the most of her youthful years in Africa, Bown has known our people's pains and cries. In response to this circumstance, Bown, has laid incomparably solid foundation for scholarship in Africa's adult and continuing education. As early as 1966, Bown had attempted to compile a bibliography of African adult education, thus heralding the intentions and visions we have sought to "mid-wife" in this present ambitious text which has been much more localized and representative of the continent than any other previous efforts that came across in my search of literature.

Bown's efforts have transcended bibliographical survey through psychology, literacy, development to generic issues like women's empowerment and periscoping the future (1966, 1972, 1975, 1989 and 1990). Other than scholarship, Bown has laid solid example of administrative practices and human resource development in African adult and continuing education. These apparently useful initiatives are to be difficult for anyone to easily obliterate for a long time to come.

Following in the steps of Bown are Fordham and Bhola. It will be difficult to fully explore the writings of all the friends of Africa, including those who are currently making immense contributions. Suffice it to say that Fordham had been productively engaging in "mentoring" young Africa scholars as well as shedding light on aspects of the field as it obtained on the continent (1970 and 1988). Like Fordham, Bhola has been doing some research and scholarship that is relevant to Africa. Apart from having been rigorously involved in evaluating research and scholarship in Africa, Bhola has profoundly engaged in comparative studies and policy analysis and development in adult and continuing education in some Africa countries. Prominent among such countries are Botswana and Namibia (Bhola, 1988, 1990, 1993 and 1999). When one considers the value of the contributions by scholars working outside Africa but who have reflected seriously, the enormity of the challenges facing scholars working from within can only be best imagined.

Scholars of African descent and those living and working from within have not yet failed to live up to the challenges facing them in regards to research in adult and continuing education in Africa. At the risk of having inadvertently missed some of the prominent entries in the field, let me attempt to highlight scholarship in selected aspect of Africa's adult and continuing education.

Expectedly, literacy has again dominated the focus of scholarship attention. And within the context of discussions on literacy there are works which deal with slight broader titles but whose substance has been literacy. These may be taken together as one. To effect, Omolewa (1983, 1997), Oduaran (1999b), Mwansa (1995), Tabir (1986a 1986b, 1992) Obanya (1999), Wangola and Youngman (1996), Youngman (1990 and 1997, 2000a 2000b) Wangoola (1996), Filson et al. (1991) Indabawa (1991, 1993) Thompson (1996), Osuala, Aderinoye (1997) and Okedara (1989) among numerous others have been very active. In particular, scholars like Wangoola, Youngman and Indabawa have been profoundly interested and involved in policy studies and political economy of literacy. And more scholars among those listed above have been engaged in very incisive reviews of the progress of literacy work in the continent, and almost all of them have concluded by lamenting the "pitiable" rate of progress and utility. And yet others have been keenly interested in studying how the ideas of the famous Brazilian scholars, Paulo Freire, can be applied in Africa.

Continuing education, training and youth come on the heels of distance learning in terms of scholarship. In this regard, the ground patron of scholarship in this aspect can easily be said to be Akinpelu (1998 and 1996). But even at that, Amyanwu et al. (1988), Braimoh, Adeola,and Mohasi (1995), Indabawa (1994), Walters (1997), Kgobe (1997), Gush and Walters (1995) and Sets'abi (1997) among others have provided

useful information in this aspect.

In a spectacular way, community development and education as well as lifelong learning in the context of globalization have been receiving attention recent. And in this regard Walters (1987, 1988, 1989, 1993, 1994 and 1999) has been taking the lead. But she is not alone for numerous others have been writing on this aspect in different and challenging ways in an attempt to expand and extend its frontiers of knowledge (Oduaran and Okukpon, 1997, Oduaran, 1999; Thompson, 1994, 1996; and Youngman and Maruatona 1998). These scholars are making significant contribution to scholarship such that reading through their entries one is easily convinced that Africa certainly has a well-articulated direction for growth in this aspect.

The present shift to lifelong learning is particularly significant for many reasons. Outwardly, some critics may criticize this as an abandonment of the scholar's previous vigorous promotion of adult and continuing education. But this should not quite be the case. Lifelong learning implies learning across the life span. If lifelong learning is therefore pursued to its logical conclusions it means that some segments of the population in Africa that had been neglected in educational provisions can now be adequately catered for. Let us take the case of children who were supposed to be in school but for one reason or the other are not there. Their circumstances are such that they are left out of educational provisions. With the emphasis on education across the lifespan policies and structures can be specifically put in place to meet the needs of these children who are commonly referred to in literature as out-of-school youth. There are also other minority population. For example, those in confinement who equally cannot avail themselves of the regular provision of education. They too can now be brought into the full view of those for whom educational provision has to be made.

The promotion of lifelong learning and in particular its application to so many challenges facing people in Africa is rewarding. The dynamic manifestations of previously unknown aspects of development in what is now know as post-modernism challenges the scholars working in Africa. For example, scholars are exploring how lifelong learning in Africa can be so well structured to cope with globalization. If adult and continuing learning could be said to have addressed so many divergent needs and interests in Africa, we could been seen as doing much more to promote community development. Consequently, adult and continuing education in Africa had been so profoundly engaged in joining in the moves that have been made to develop theories and principles in community development. For example, research and scholarship in community development have covered aspects like community participation, social mobilization, empowerment and participatory rural development, poverty alleviation, community education, refugee education, peace education and consumer education amongst others. It is this and other areas that scholars have been investing so much energy.

The laying of the foundation of community development as a big aspect of adult and continuing education began quite long ago. We may begin with Professor Odokara who is generally acclaimed to be the first African to take a doctoral degree in adult education and from an American University. On returning to Africa, he joined the academic staff of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka where he began to popularize the unity between adult education and community development as academic fields of study. And this story began to take shape in the early 1970s. since then, many other scholars have devoted attention to community development.

Community development as a related field of interest in adult and continuing education in Africa has had attention of an impressive array of scholars. Today, we can talk about Anynwu taking the lead in West Africa, Karani in East Africa and Walters in Southern Africa. Whilst, it may not be possible to explore the contributions to this aspect in full, it is useful to highlight the direction of research and scholarship. Walters

interest in community development spans the components of democratic participation, community organization, women and community education (Walters, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1993a, 1993b and 1994). Even though Walters current interest is moving towards lifelong learning, gender and empowerment, it should be noted that her thoughts had always been geared to making Africans take their destinies in their own hands.

In West Africa, Anyanwu, Indabawa (1983, 1995) and Thompson (1994 and 1996) have been addressing the issue of how development needs to be extended and expanded to deal with the problem of participation and excruciating poverty. This may not explore how much havoc poverty has inflicted on Africans. Be that as it may, if there is any subject that Africans should like to see properly addressed, it is poverty. Poverty has been held responsible for numerous ills afflicting our people. These ills are commonly beloved to range from destitution, ill-health, illiteracy, ignorance and corruption amongst others. It should not therefore be surprising that our scholars have been addressing the subject of poverty and its alleviation very vigorously. Poverty is a bone in the continent and its "overthrow" is paramount in the schemes of programming for community development.

Apart from poverty, participatory rural appraisal and development is receiving scholarship attention. Among numerous others, participatory rural development has been addressed by Youngman and Maruatona (1998). They have both examined this concept and its application more in the context of Botswana, but their efforts have implications for the rest of Africa. What Youngman and Maruatona (1998) have done for Botswana had similarly been the concern of Moletsane and Braimoh (1995) who are viewing rural transformation from the perspectives that apply in the New South Africa. These and other ideas will definitely attract more attention by other scholars on the continent.

Although scholarship has been directed at the major areas indicated above, it needs to be noted that the balance in terms of coverage is yet slim. For example, Prison education is yet to receive the vigorous attention it deserves. Apart from the useful pioneering efforts of Enuku at the University of Benin, Nigeria, other scholars in Africa are yet to adequately identify the value in this aspect of adult and continuing education. Again, gender in adult and continuing education in Africa is not yet receive the prominent attention it deserves. This is not to say that Walters and some other scholars in Africa have not identified the subject.

From the forgoing, it is clear that there are many neglected themes in research and scholarship in adult and continuing education in Africa. When the environment for research and scholarship becomes much more stimulating in Africa, it is anticipated that we might have incisive or penetrating efforts on the part of scholars and practitioners. In this regard, the University will have a big role to play.

University adult and continuing education

Universities in Africa had to play a vigorous role in the development of different aspect of adult and continuing education. For example, they have often played a prominent role in the promotion of mass literacy campaigns. Oduaran (1986) studied the role of Universities in promoting mass literacy campaigns in Nigeria and came up with conclusion that they have done very well in the aspect of research, manpower and development, advocacy and materials development.

African Universities have actually been at the forefront of strengthening the growth of adult and continuing education more through their various personnel development programmes. This is what the Universities seems to have been doing even as they equally invest in research and material development.

In a discussion of the role of the universities in personnel development of adult and continuing education, one would have preferred to indicate which University is doing what. The gap in knowledge of this aspect would make the preferred option almost impossible. But we can attempt to do a selected highlighting of which University is offering which professional programme in the field.

Table 1: **Selected list of African Universities offering adult and continuing education programs.**

Universities		Selected programmes						
S/No.	—	Ph.D	M.Ed.	B.Ed.	Dip.	Cert.	Dist. Educ.	Conti. Educ.
1.	Nairobi				X			X
2.	Tanzania			X	X			X
3.	Swaziland			X	X		X	X
4.	Lesotho			X	X	X	X	X
5.	Zimbabwe			X	X		X	X
6.	Zambia			X	X		X	X
7.	Botswana	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
8.	Namibia	X	X	X	X		X	X
9.	South Africa	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
10.	Cape Town				X		X	X
11.	Ghana			X	X	X	X	X
12.	Ibadan, Nigeria	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
13.	Benin, Nigeria		X	X	X			
14.	Nigeria, Nsukka	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
15.	Bayero Kano, Nigeria			X	X	X		X
16.	Ahmadu Bello Zaria, Nigeria			X		X	X	X
17.	University of Maiduguri, Nigeria			X	X	X	X	X
18.	Uthmanu Dan Fodio, Sokoto, Nigeria				X	X	X	X
19.	Obafemi Awolowo, Ile-Ife, Nigeria	X	X					X
20.	Port Hercourt, Nigeria		X	X	X	X	X	X

Legend:
X= Indicator of the availability of the programmes.

Even though our list is far from being or accurate in terms of a more comprehensive coverage, it gives the desired information to the effect that the Universities in Africa are doing much in the aspect of personnel development. It must be noted that the universities in Uganda, Egypt, Algeria, Benin, Toga, Cameroon, Mozambique, Mauritius amongst others are equally engaged in profound activities in the aspect of personnel development. At this stage, it night be possible to comment on the quality of work that is being done. However, there is no doubt that these Universities have on their staff scholars who are recognized internationally.

We can not conclude the discussion on Universities participation without mentioning even briefly, the assistance given to Africa in the aspect of staff development, research and scholarship by foreign Universities. A select list of such foreign Universities that have been active in this direction would include the following:

- University of Georgia at Athens
- University of Wisconsin
- University of Alaska
- Florida State University
- Pennsylvania State University
- Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Canada
- University of British Columbia
- University of Manchester
- University of Warwick
- University of Nottingham
- University of Hull
- University of London
- University of Birmingham
- University of Leeds
- University of Reading

The Universities listed thus far have provided additional support to what is going on in African adult and continuing education. This is a clear indication that Africa has been fortunate enough to receive such immense support from outside in the promotion of research and scholarship.

External institutional support

Research and scholarship have been positively influenced and supported by some external agencies. Towards this purpose UNESCO has provided free of charge teaching and learning materials and data that are very hard to find. The funding of research and physical academic projects have been the area where the UNICEF and UNDP have given some resources. This cannot be underestimated for research and scholarship depends on this type of support.

It will be an under statement if one posits that the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV) has been one of the most successful promoters of research and scholarship in African adult and continuing education. To date, the IIZ/DVV has continued to award scholarship to deserving African students who are studying adult education. In addition to scholarship awards this association has continually funded the publication of its rich and easily available journal titled *Adult Education and Development*. It is difficult at this point to say which journal has done much more to encourage research and scholarship in Africa than this journal.

In addition to the journal which has been freely distributed to African scholars and practitioners, the

association has funded NGOs, University Departments of adult and continuing education and also publishes supplements at intervals. At different times, the association has awarded travel grants to Africans who have had to travel within or go abroad to attend conferences.

The German Adult Education Association has done so much for Africa. Fortunately, other organizations have recognized the importance of the support Africa needs in the area. Prominent among such organizations is The Commonwealth of Learning.

The Commonwealth of Learning(COL) is an intergovernmental organization which has been created by the Commonwealth Heads of Government. Its primary duty has been the development and sharing of open learning and distance education knowledge, resources and technologies. By so doing, COL has helped a lot in widening and improving access to quality education and training. Technically speaking, COL has helped Africa in improving its adult and continuing education. The generation and distribution of knowledge using the Internet is a very significant support for Africa.

There is also some support coming from the United States for research and scholarship in Africa. This comes through so many Foundations and Organizations including the Kellog and Rockefeller Foundations. However, in recent times, through the University of Georgia at Athens a big research and scholarship oriented program has come on stream. This is the Cyril Houle Program. It has been opening access to research funding for junior scholars from the USA, Latin America and Africa. The intervention of all these organizations has not meant that there are no problems.

Problems and mitigations

The discussion of problems facing research and scholarship in Africa can be incisive. However we will limit ourselves to a few problems. Africa is yet to witness very active and vigorous research initiatives that are of the kind one can describe as cross-cultural and international within the continent. As more and more scholar move across their home nations to others in an attempt to "blend" their thoughts with locals some improvement would be noticed. Moreover, the promotion of mentoring by older and experienced colleagues would be another opportunity for shaping and sharpening our focus.

Regular fora where scholars working in Africa can meet are rare. Consequently, scholars are as widely separated as can be imagined. This is even made worse by language barriers. One way out of this predicament could be the pooling of our resources to host academic fora. However, the poor state of economies in many African countries would make such meetings a luxury.

The scathing limitations placed on scholars in terms of communicating across boundaries should have been mitigated by Internet connectivity. Unfortunately, this connectivity in Africa south of the Sahara is at a developmental stage. In many Africa nations, it is completely non-existent. The constraints are enormous but the governments in Africa have to have a will to improve this aspect of development.

Internet connectivity alone may not sole the problem of ignorance that is prevailing among scholars. We had already alluded to the fact that the language barrier is serious. It is further compounded by the absence of regularly published journals that could be read in all African countries. The obvious solution to this problem is the development and sponsorship of an African generated journal in adult and continuing education. This journal should reach across all languages. For example, it would be challenging to have such a journal that is published in English, French, Portuguese, Arabic and Swahili, Hausa, Ibo, Yoruba, and on-line at the same time. Such a journal, for a start, would need to be circulated freely, and later on, a token fee could be attached for reasons of mailing and administration. The question that remains on the lips of everyone now is: Whose responsibility should this be? This question can not be easily resolved but

if our discipline is actually valued then it might be possible to go through the Organization for Africa Unity (O.A.U) and "friends" of Africa.

The problem that besets Africa in the area of communication is manifested in library development. To date, African libraries have had to rely on the West for the supply of textbooks, magazines and journals in adult and continuing education. It does not matter to us, or so it seems, if some of these Western generated textbooks and ideas are irrelevant to our culture. The situation facing us now seems to be one that we do not have too much choice. The only antidote to this over-dependence on the north for reading texts is for scholars to come together to promote a body that can sensitize and disseminate some of the rich thoughts that are now emerging in the continent is the field of adult and continuing education.

Education, generally, does not operate in a vacuum. Much of what is happening in education is dictated by government policy in the case of Africa. In this regards, we can say that the promotion of research and scholarship is weak for many countries in Africa. Therefore, if scholars and practitioners work through non-governmental policy environment to bring pressure to bear on government, it might be possible for us to have better policy and financial support for the growth of our discipline.

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to examine the terrain of research and scholarship in adult and continuing education in Africa. If this examination is silhouetted against the past, we can easily conclude that significant progress has been made. However, given the speed with which things are changing in the world, one can regret the slow pace with which we have moved in the efforts aimed at improving on research and scholarship in the field. But we cannot be despondent about this realization.

Given the attention African peoples and governments are giving to globalization, it is certain that we cannot afford to be left behind in any aspect of development. Therefore, if scholars in Africa can safely and successfully demonstrate how much usefulness their discipline can be in terms of dealing with the numerous challenges facing us, the future should not be as bleak as some may conclude on the basis of the present.

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Chapter 5

FROM ADULT EDUCATION TO LIFELONG LEARNING IN SOUTHERN AFRICA OVER THE LAST TWENTY YEARS[1]

Shirley Walters and Kathy Watters

Introduction

Adult education is embedded in the political, social, cultural and economic processes of society. This suggests that the nature of adult education policies, programmes and practices reflects the interests and values of different social groups and distribution of power and influence in the society. Hence it is necessary to sketch the background to the southern African economic, social and political contexts over the last twenty years in sufficient detail and to identify the contestations for power and influence amongst different social groups. We begin with a brief synopsis of major characteristics of the southern African region. We then provide an overview of the dominant development approaches, which have been instrumental in shaping adult education in fundamental ways in the region. We will then highlight key developments for adult education in the last twenty years and illustrate the competing interests and values which are operative.

There are, unfortunately, no detailed studies of the history of adult education in southern Africa[2]. There is a dearth of available literature and research on adult education in most of the fourteen countries of the region. The article, therefore, refers unevenly to the specific countries and inevitably is skewed in favour of those with which we are most familiar either through personal experience or available literature in English.

In this chapter the term adult education is used in an inclusive way to refer to all educational provision for adults excluding formal tertiary education. Its social purposes can be thought of as :

(i) Education that enhances strategies that enable women and men to survive the harsh conditions in which they live. Examples of this include literacy, primary health care, and some homecraft skills.

(ii) Education and training geared to developing skills for people in the formal and informal sectors would describe education for economic purposes.

(iii) Cultural and political education which aims to encourage women and men to participate actively in society through networks of cultural organisations, social movements, political parties and trade unions.

Political and Socio-economic Picture of the Region

The present global economy is pushing national economies and local industries to compete in the world market. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) was formed in 1992 and in 1996 the Maseru Protocol was signed which is moving SADC towards a free trade area. SADC grew out of the Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC), which had had South Africa as its common political enemy while sharing with it complex historical and economic dependence. The SADCC provided the structure for the countries to organise themselves in geo-political terms in order to maximise their political clout and minimise their economic dependence on South Africa.

SADC is comprised of 14 countries, which vary in population from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), which has 47 million, to Swaziland which has under a million inhabitants. Six of the countries have populations of 2 million or less: Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles and Swaziland.

Many SADC countries still rely heavily on agriculture. Only Angola, Botswana and South Africa have less than 10% of their production coming from agriculture. Five countries, Malawi, Mozambique, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe, obtain more than 25% of their production from agriculture. It is one of the least urbanised parts of the world and only Angola, Seychelles and South Africa have urban dwellers in the majority. Economic performance is dominated by that of South Africa, which represents more than 70 per cent of the combined sub-regional Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Commonly used indicators of poverty reveal that SADC members are amongst the poorest countries in the world. The Human Development Index for the region is 0.47 while the GDP per capita is US$ 1 236. This compares unfavourably with the world average of US$ 4 797 and the average for industrialised countries of US$ 17 221. The average income per person in Mozambique is only US$ 90 per year, which makes it one of the poorest in the world.

There are a few countries which have a relatively high GDP per capita for developing countries. Seychelles has the highest at $6 880, with Mauritius, South Africa and Botswana having above $3 000 per capita per annum. But even in these relatively well off countries there is major inequity between the rich and poor. The SADC Regional Human Development Report of 1998 states that 30 % of SADC population live in abject poverty while 30-40% of labour force is unemployed or ekes out a living as subsistence farmers.

The life expectancy is very low in most SADC countries, for example, Malawi where it is just 41 years and Zambia where it is 43 years. The terrible HIV/Aids pandemic is pushing the life expectancy even lower. The average infant mortality rate for the region is 82 per 1 000 live births. Again this compares unfavourably with the industrialised countries average of 14 and the world average of 58.[4]

Although still experiencing difficult economic situations, most SADC countries have adopted macroeconomic and social policies aimed at improving regional human development performance. In order to achieve this, most governments spend close to 20% of their budgets on education and almost 5% on health development.[4]

This sketch provides a picture of a region that has a very wide spread of developmental needs, including adult education. The questions we pursue in the next sections are: what is the state of adult education and why is adult education so weak in the region? To help answer these questions it is useful to review the dominant theories of development.

Adult Education and Development

Most of the countries of the region have experienced major political and economic upheavals in the last forty years. During this time all of them went through, more or less, traumatic processes of decolonisation. The last five countries to gain independence were Mozambique in 1976, Angola in 1975, Zimbabwe in 1980, Namibia in 1990 and South Africa in 1994. All five of these countries experienced extended liberation struggles. All of the countries in the region went through processes of reconstruction and development towards building new nations in about the last forty years. The approaches adopted by the different countries were shaped strongly by dominant development theories of the time which reflect particular ideologies and material interests. We draw on the Botswanan academic, Youngman's[5] very recently published and useful synthesis of these theories. It is important to note that in presenting these development theories we do not imply their simple identification in any specific context. At different moments there may be several, differing understandings of development, which are operative simultaneously, but one which gains hegemonic status for a time. We will present illustrations of this point later.

From the 1950s and 1960s modernisation theory was very influential. Youngman describes the powerful influence of modernisation theory which proposed an economic strategy to:

> develop a modern sector based on industrialisation and commercial agriculture by mobilising the underemployed labour in the 'traditional' rural sector. Development was seen essentially as economic growth based on the expansion of the modern sector and the export of primary products. This process required support by appropriate government measures, accompanied by external investment and foreign aid. (p. 53)

The fundamental premise of modernisation theory is that there is a single process of social evolution, with 'traditional societies' at the one end and the mass high consumption societies at the other. The assumption is that Third World countries needed to modernise through growth and that overall economic growth would benefit everyone through the 'trickle down' effect.

In the 1960s there were developments in modernisation theory which were more egalitarian and which emphasised basic needs approaches and poverty alleviation strategies, in addition to economic growth. People supporting this viewpoint were interested in general social reform. However, it was the economic strategy based on the 'trickle down' effect that had the most influence with international agencies like the World Bank in the 1970s.

In relation to education, from the early 1960s modernisation theory advocated a large expansion of schooling based on human capital theory, which saw education as a productive investment essential for economic growth. This view reinforced the understanding that Third World countries were undeveloped because of certain characteristics, including their poor education and skills levels. Southern African countries, as with many Third World countries, expanded their education systems rapidly in the 1960s and 1970s. A strong centralised education system was seen as politically important for nation building. Part of the strategy included the development of a national university in several of the countries in the region. Evidence supporting how Southern African countries were encouraged to buy into this theory of development is demonstrated during this period by these countries spending at least 20% of their annual budget on education.

Universal primary education was a key goal and this absorbed significant investments of public resources and foreign aid. As Youngman (2000:56) points out, the rapid expansion of schooling led to problems in many countries, including social demand exceeding resources available, inefficiencies, and educated unemployment. A response to this was the growth in the idea of nonformal education, for example, to give knowledge and skills to those who could not go to school and to train those who were partially qualified. Priority was given to modernising the agricultural and rural sectors through farmer training, extension services, and rural development. Adult education policies were strongly influenced by modernisation theory and they were seen as integral to national development.

The major critique of modernisation theory came in the 1960s and 1970s from the dependency theorists. Youngman (2000:59) points to the neo-marxist perspectives of writers such as Baran and Frank, who analysed the relationships between the advanced industrialised capitalist countries and the countries on the periphery using concepts such as class and imperialism. Baran, quoted by Youngman, concluded that a socialist revolution and disengagement from the world capitalist economy would be needed to enable full socio-economic development to take place in the Third World. The idea of 'blocked development' went against the fundamental premise of modernisation theory.

The dependency theorists reached a degree of prominence amongst development workers, political activists, adult educators, and national leaders like Julius Nyerere, president of Tanzania. Paulo Freire was perhaps the most influential adult education theorist within this perspective. His work in the early 1970s and 1980s strongly influenced educators and activists linked to the liberation movements in Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, amongst others. Adult education was integral to processes of political consciousness-raising within a socialist or social democratic vision of the future. While the dependency theory had a degree of influence amongst theorists and activists, it did not have much influence on national policy. The Tanzanian policy of self-reliance, developed in the 1960s, and the Mozambican socialist revolution in the mid 1970s were perhaps two instances where it would have had some impact on national policy.

An important critique of mainstream development thinking within a modernisation paradigm also came from the Right and this has been highly influential in the 1980s. As Youngman (2000:67) says, this neoliberal critique is derived from neoclassical economics and the theory of laissez-faire capitalism, in which the unimpeded operation of the market is seen as leading to an optimal economic situation. Interventions by government are seen as disruptive distortions to free competition in the marketplace. During the late 1970s and 1980s right-wing governments were elected in Britain, Germany and the USA and they proceeded to implement monetarist domestic policies which became extremely influential world-wide, including southern Africa.

An early statement of this perspective appeared in 1981 in a major World Bank report on development in Africa entitled "Accelerated development in sub-Saharan Africa: an agenda for Action". Youngman (2000:68) states that the report reflected the neoliberal view that poor performance was a result of erroneous policies by Third World governments that had allowed too large a public sector, had overemphasised physical capital formation to the neglect of human skills, and introduced too many economic controls and regulations. New policies were required. This policy was the basis for massive interventions by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund in internal policy making of governments in Africa. Since the 1980s lending has been made conditional on 'structural adjustment programmes' (SAPS) that would alter their economic situations. These have included the removal of restrictions on foreign investment and trade, the promotion of exports, the privatisation of public enterprises, the reduction of government spending, imposition of wage restraints and currency devaluation. The establishment of the World Trade Organisation in 1995 created a strong international institution to promote the neoliberal goal of free trade in a globalized economy. The neoliberal theory currently dominates international policy on development.

The implications of these policies for education in regions like southern Africa have been various but include the orientation of education towards the needs of business and stress the development of human resources necessary for economic growth. For adult education, the policies have ensured a cutback in services through a reduced role for the government, more emphasis on adult education for the development of the economy and encouraging the private sector to take a more important role in education provision.

While the dominant influences on development policies since 1945 have been modernisation theory and neoliberal theory, important critiques have developed through analysis of ordinary people's experiences. The economic crises and environmental degradation stimulated self-reliance strategies, which included the formation of many non-governmental organisations and community-based groups, often based on indigenous values and practices. From the perspectives of Third World women's development such as that captured in Gita Sen and Caren Grown's influential book, "Development, crises and alternative visions", (1987), an argument for empowerment of ordinary women was made. Alternative approaches to people-centred development took root which were influenced by feminism, environmentalism and ethno-culturalism and which have had important influences on social movements in the region.

The final development perspective which has importance here is the Marxist political economy which states that adult education is embedded in the political processes of society. It suggests that the nature of adult education policies, programmes and practices reflects the interests and values of different social groups, and the distribution of power in society. Hence the study of adult education must include political analysis. In particular, it must address the question of the extent to which adult education serves to reinforce the existing power structure and its socio-economic order, or contributes to social change based on alternative ideas about society and its development. A political analysis is integral to Marxist political economy. It has two main concerns, one material and one ideological. This analytical approach has had an important influence on many adult educators in southern Africa in the last twenty years.

The countries of southern Africa are peripheral capitalist economies and the development of adult education in Southern Africa has been shaped very directly by this, including the macro policies of international development agencies and the socio-economic realities within each of the countries. These in turn have sometimes spurred local people on to finding alternative approaches to development. We turn now to a discussion of the status of adult education in the region.

Social Purposes of Adult Education in the SADC Region

We will now describe aspects of adult education over the last two decades by focusing on its three major social purposes : survival; economic development; political and cultural development. We cannot hope to be comprehensive but rather illustrative of the contexted nature of adult educational practices over the last twenty years. The question is why adult education is so weak in a region which so clearly has massive development needs.

As adult education is integral to social processes, it is not suprising that it gains in prominence at heightened political or economic moments. Over the last twenty years most governments have invested minimally in adult education with their emphasis on schooling. At the point of political independence adult education became significant. For example, after the historic transition in South Africa to democratic governance in 1994, adult education was highlighted particularly in relation to redress for black people, economic development and the growth of a democratic culture. Adult basic education was declared a 'Presidential Lead Project' but was to be dependent on international donors.

Another example is taken from Mozambique. The watchwords of Samora Machel, president of the newly independent Mozambique and head of the liberation movement, Frelimo, were 'study, produce, and fight'. These were taken as serious marching orders in preparation for independence and a broad, popular literacy movement emerged throughout the country. (Marshall p 83) Popular education involved mobilizing human resources for creating the new Mozambique and literacy was part of the Dynamizing Groups set up in most villages and towns. A National Directorate of Literacy and Adult Education was set up in 1976. Since those heady days with the systematic destructive power of the apartheid state in South Africa, state sponsored adult education has all but disappeared in Mozambique.

Adult Education for Survival

In this section, developments in the areas of literacy and HIV/Aids education will be presented. We wish to illustrate the ways in which adult education practices have been shaped by the various approaches to development and the balances of forces in the country or the region as a whole.

Literacy

Many SADC countries have embarked on a National Literacy Campaign soon after obtaining independence. The reasons have varied and have generally been largely funded by external donors. The

1980 Campaign of Botswana was 70% funded by foreign donors and was promulgated as a solution to development needs very much within the 'modernisation' framework. The campaign did not reach its goal and it has been argued that this was mainly because of a lack of internal political support for the programme. Literacy programmes were also not integrated into an overall development plan and were thus not vital to developmental success. In Zimbabwe a national literacy campaign was implemented three years after independence in 1983. Despite the rhetoric of needing literacy for development the state followed a 'modernisation' path which was orientated towards human resource development in the formal sector and thus little attention was paid to literacy.

A different picture emerged in Tanzania in which a socialist orientation made use of party political structures to mobilise a four year literacy campaign which started in 1971. According to Mundy (1993:395) the campaign was partially successful in meshing literacy with an overall policy of participatory development. The majority of the people became more conscious of the country's policy of socialism and self-reliance and improved their knowledge of Swahili, however there was less obvious benefit to the economy. At this level the literacy campaign intervention could perhaps be described within a neo-marxist view of development. However, Mundy believes that the socialist development policy of Tanzania led to a reduction in foreign funding. This placed the government of Tanzania in a double bind, while needing a literate population to assist in their development of self reliance and independence they were reliant on foreign funding to initiate the literacy campaign. Over time, as Tanzania became more reliant on the world system for energy and technology, the 'in house' strategy became less resistant to external pressures and in the mid 1980's they succumbed to adopting a neo-liberal development policy. During this process literacy was also used to legitimise the government and in so doing they continued to secure foreign funding.

In Namibia at independence in 1990, the National Literacy Programme for Namibia (NLPN) was adopted. Literacy was seen as central to the building of the new nation. As the new President, Sam Nujoma said, "We hope that through participation in the National Literacy Programme our people will not just acquire new skills, but a new confidence in their own abilities and imagination, and better exercise their rights and responsibilities as Namibian citizens". (Lind 1996 p 11). Ten years later Namibia has a fairly well developed NLPN which has been supported by external donors, but has increasingly also been taken over by the state. One reason for its success could be that, with donor support, a few influential advocates in government have been able to sustain the programme in impressive ways. Their commitment to literacy as a human rights issue goes back to their active political involvement in the liberation movement in exile where they developed an explicitly Freirian approach. As the literacy programme moved from the `struggle politics` arena into the mainstream the development framework appears to have shifted from the neo-marxist or dependency framework to a modernisation frame.

In apartheid South Africa adult literacy provision was small scale and in multiple sites without any central co-ordination(NEPI 1992:25) Provision was by the State, Private Sector and a variety of NGOs with the State being the largest, although inadequate, provider. The State attempted to exert tight control by demanding that all adult literacy programmes were approved before being allowed to register. Despite the difficulties, NGOs provided broad based Adult Education programmes. Most of the NGOs relied on international funders to continue their work and many worked within a Freirianframework. There has never been a substantial national literacy campaign in South Africa. In post-apartheid South Africa there has been a shift to national provision where the state and private sectors are the main providers. While the new democratic government has aligned itself rhetorically with peoplè-centred development and a social democratic programme, in reality the policy of economic growth within a nèoliberal framework is predominant, although this is still highly contested by many organisations within civil society. Stromquist (1998) states in her analysis of literacy or ABET in South Africa,

> Adult educational policies in South Africa, despite their explicit existence, are not resulting in empowering activities. The detailed plans for ABET policy implementation is to be funded 'in partnership' with others, really a euphemism for limited government support. It is with regard to gender that the symbolic use of policy appears most obvious, given the limited follow-up to gender policy documents.

She continues,

> Globalization is being defended as a dynamic process that needs highly trained people in order to make countries competitive in the international market. This is only partly true. Globalization also needs people with low levels of education (and even no education) for some jobs: menial services are increasingly needed by the professional classes. In a country such as South Africa, where an essential aspect of its industrialization is based on exploitation of minerals, cheap physical (and uneducated) labor is at a premium. Under these conditions, literacy is not only not needed but not even desired by policy makers, for new literates may access information and become more critical of their surroundings and conditions.

Stromquist's critique is telling. No matter what the politicians are saying, the reality is that basic needs, like literacy, are not a priority within a neo-liberal development framework within a peripheral capitalist economy like that of South Africa. This reality, however, does not deter the adult educators and development activists from continuing to argue for its significance. It is interesting to note at UNESCO's Fifth International Conference on Adult Education held in Germany in 1997, that it was the African delegates who struggled long and hard to maintain a profile for adult literacy within the broader framework of 'adult learning'.

HIV/Aids

One of the greatest educational challenges facing southern Africa presently is the devastating HIV/Aids pandemic. Southern Africa has the highest incidence in the world. Thousands of people are dying of the disease. It is having substantial effects on the economies as it is the working adult population which is most vulnerable. The prediction is that there will be 12 million Aids orphans in Africa in 2000.

There have been various strategies developed over the last ten years to counter the pandemic. It is a sexually transmitted disease which is exacerbated by poverty. Educational processes are called on which challenge deep seated cultural, religious, ethnic, gender, or class attitudes and behaviours. In many societies there are cultural practices that propagate the spread of the virus through promiscuity. Women are most at risk as often it is men who have multiple partners. The power relations between women and men make it impossible for many women to insist on safe sexual practices. Some people predict that until women are empowered and gender relations are more equal, it will be extremely difficult to stem this tide.

Educational programmes are being orchestrated in some countries through the Health Ministries but this is seen to be inadequate. In South Africa Departments of Education, Labour, Welfare and Health are

beginning to work together. There are over 600 NGOs working to counter HIV/Aids. In Namibia there are about 12.[6] Some workplaces have begun running education and counselling services for workers. There is a growing awareness that all sectors of society, working with people of all ages, must join together to educate about HIV/Aids. At the World Aids Conference held in Durban in July 2000, 13 000 scientists, activists, educators, development workers, government officials, and health workers, all came together to share research, information, methodologies and policies. There were discussions, debates, information, and papers disseminated on a daily basis through community and national radio, television and newspapers. It was a massive and impressive public educational process.

The growing campaign is being interpreted and taken forward by a very wide range of interest groups with different values, for example, rurally based indigenous healers, rural and urban women's groups, youth groups, religious and community organisations and educational institutions. They are using different approaches, from ethno-cultural, to feminist, to popular, to spiritual, amongst others, to organise awareness raising, skills training, and organisational development strategies.

The responses to HIV/Aids provide excellent contemporary examples of adult education for survival which involve most sectors of society and which draw on multiple pedagogical, organisational and developmental frameworks simultaneously.

Adult Education for Economic Development

In a region with such high unemployment and levels of poverty, economic development is of paramount importance. The 1998 SADC Human Development Report states that unemployment in the region varies from Botswana at 21% to Mauritius at 6%. They estimate that 30 - 40% of the labour force of SADC are either completely unemployed or are eking out a living as subsistence farmers. The same report indicates that less that 50% of the labour force are women. In the last twenty years numerous adult education programmes focused on skill development have been embarked on by SADC countries in both the formal and informal economies.

Within the context of globalized economies, economic development and adult education, or adult learning, become even more urgent and complex. A key question is what is the primary objective of economic development? Is it to be globally competitive? Or is this a means towards an end which may be something like the Brazilian, Marcos Arruda's proposal that the goal for globalisation must be 'the development of human capacities of all citizens'. Within a context like South Africa, these are very pertinent and hotly debated issues within organisations of state, civil society and business. Adult learning is implicated in these debates which refer to competing development frameworks.

Within the debates on globalization are debates about the importance and the role of information communication technologies (ICT) in economic development. Africa is the most poorly serviced continent in ICT. Less than 1% of internet users are in Africa and of those, the majority are in South Africa. This is seen as another major barrier to Africa's development and one which will lead to even greater inequality both within the continent and between Africa and other regions

The type of adult education for economic development that has occurred in the last twenty years within Southern Africa can be differentiated again in terms of competing interests. For instance, the economic development projects for women have often been within a modernising frame which has not challenged the sexual division of labour or attempted to transform women's subordinate positions. A Zimbabwean example illustrates this point.

Brand et al (1993) documented the struggle of women to become visible members of the labour force in

Zimbabwe. Historically women remained in rural areas while their men migrated to the urban areas, particularly the mines, where they had greater access to educational opportunities. A national manpower survey conducted in 1981 revealed that only 22% of professional workers were women and that 15% of skilled workers and 11% of semi skilled workers were women. After independence in 1980, legislation was passed to improve the working conditions of women in the formal sector. While these reforms can be commended they only effected the 200 000 women in formal employment indicating little real commitment to transforming society. The majority of women have continued to work as informal traders in three areas: petty trading of products such as curios, firewood, fruit and vegetables; small scale traders providing food and beverages, textiles and traditional crafts and personal services such as catering, hairdressing and prostitution. These women appear to have received scant direct support from either the state or aid agencies. Their work has remained invisible and has not been seen as essential in the dominant view of economic development. Based on the work of Youngman (2000), it is likely that the training they received, if any, has focused on production skills rather than on broader business skills. Even subsequent training started after the 1990 introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment and Social Dimension Programmes, targeted retrenched and unemployed people. Brand et al see this as a piecemeal strategy which has not been integrated into an overall development strategy and is unlikely to benefit women.

Another example of the contested nature of adult education highlights racial discrimination. During the 1980's, in response to the removal of job reservation restrictions, the mining industry in South Africa began preparing their black underground labour force for blasting certificate examinations. Blasting involves correctly placing the dynamite underground, is skilled work and potentially very dangerous. The majority of the targeted workers came from outside of the country and generally had very little education. The industry implemented widespread training and education programmes to address their needs. While the workers stood to gain financially from this initiative as they had already been blasting illegally, the move was strongly contested by the conservative white mine worker unions. These unions managed to ensure that the examination was a written assessment and had to be completed in either English or Afrikaans. It took many years and much negotiating by the trade union federation, COSATU, to alter this situation.

Adult education for economic development occurs most frequently in large companies in the formal sector and for employees at the middle and upper levels. This is a world-wide trend which most often favours educated men and is reflected in the Southern African region as well This is likely to continue as, within the dominant neo-liberal framework, the globalizing economies require flexible, well educated workers. As Stromquist suggests, it also requires uneducated workers to service the professional classes.

Adult Education for Political and Cultural Development

In this section we will illustrate the type of political and cultural activities in the region by referring to practices relating to the struggles for political freedom and women's empowerment.

The struggle for democracy

The fact that most countries in the region have undergone radical political change in the last forty years, implies that there have been high degrees of political activism and education at different times. Within the liberation movements in exile, adult educational activities were conducted. For example, Pethu Serote describes the African National Congress' programme in exile in Tanzania. Others have described the educational activities inside prison such as that on Robben Island, the prison which housed Nelson Mandela and many others for decades.

Within the last twenty years it was Namibians and South Africans who were yet to gain their freedom and they built powerful democratic movements of citizens, both inside and outside the countries, which created

alliances of socialist revolutionaries, social democrats, and social reformers. Creative informal and nonformal education was integral to these movements[7] which involved thousands of community based organisations which were forged into the democratic movement. There was rich learning through social and political action.

The struggles for 'people's democracy' attained in the mid-1970s in places like Angola and Mozambique have been overshadowed in the last twenty years by civil wars spurred on by the apartheid regime and other international interests. Many of the gains hoped for in education, health, social welfare and economic development have been decimated. In Angola alone it is reported that over 500,000 people have been killed since 1989 and there are 3 million people who have become refugees.[8] The DRC too is currently embroiled in a devastating civil war. In the region, while people's movements for social change have engendered innovative responses in some countries, in others, many millions of people are confronted with the struggle for survival from poverty, war and disease under the most trying conditions. Literature is not available on what educational efforts are possible within these situations but there are no doubt activists working to bring about peace and reconciliation.

Women's Empowerment

During the last thirty years, women's political engagement has been influenced by fundamental changes in international economic relations, reduced national capacities to solve problems, remarkable transformation in political regimes and a rise in religious fundamentalism, as well as the growth in the international component of women's movements. The effects of global economic crises and restructuring policies can be seen as starting points for feminist popular education.[9] Structural adjustment programmes, imposed by international agencies and mentioned above, mean decreased expenditure on education, health and food subsidies, and these mean that increased costs are borne by women, who must work longer hours, take more time to shop around for less expensive food, spend more resources on basic health-care, and face lower wages and fewer job opportunities as the wages in female-dominated industries decline. This is happening at a time when the national constitutions of some countries like South Africa and Namibia have developed progressive gender policies and frameworks as a result of pressure 'from below'.

In response to the changing position of women, including the United Nations Decade for Women in the 1980s, many programmes, projects and strategies have been developed within civil society, the state and the economy to varying degrees in the countries of the region. They range from training for economic activity in the formal and informal sectors, leadership development, arts and crafts, to consciousness raising. They are influenced by different theories of development. Some are within the 'women in development' framework which emphasises changing the conditions of women without necessarily changing the relations between men and women. Others are within a 'gender in development' framework where women are neither seen as 'the issue' nor 'the problem' in development and focuses on how relations between women and men are defined and structured, with a view to transformation that enables equality.

Within aid agencies it has become normal for there to be insistence on 'women's participation' where words like 'empowerment', 'capacity building', and 'participatory development' are used. While seemingly commendable objectives, they are seldom implemented on women's terms nor for the benefit of the women themselves.

The strengthening of the global women's movements through collaborative projects, solidarity actions, or international conferences like the United Nations Women's Conference held in Beijing in 1995 or the UNESCO International Conference on Adult Education, has also had effects in southern Africa. It has helped a growing number of women activists to assert themselves both nationally, regionally and globally

and it has given them skills to organise more effectively. The struggle for gender equality is however relentless as conservative ethno-cultural or religious practices are reasserted. This has been happening recently, for example, in Zimbabwe. The HIV/Aids pandemic is providing another site for contestation, for example, over ethno-cultural norms and values on the one hand and for affirmation of gender equality on the other.

The southern African region is trying to position itself in the global economy. The discussions and debates within adult education are shaped directly by this. In the last section we discuss what this means for contemporary adult education and development.

From Adult Education to Lifelong Learning

The discourse of adult education is being challenged by that of lifelong learning. Lifelong learning has entered the education and development debates of southern Africa, as elsewhere. Education policy documents in Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, for example, all refer to lifelong learning as a goal.[10] A technical committee on lifelong learning was established by the SADC in 1997. The contestation over 'lifelong learning for what?' amongst and within the different sectors is ongoing.

The region faces very difficult development dilemmas. There is important evidence from an International Adult Literacy Survey which argues for the centrality of levels of literacy for a 'learning society' which is supposed to be essential for a competitive economy.[11] Several European countries show a strong positive correlation between employment growth in an occupation and the average literacy level in that occupation. Similarly the industries that have experienced more rapid employment growth are those whose employees have relatively high levels of literacy skills, while those declining are characterized by employees with lower literacy levels. In the context of the region where levels of literacy are so poor, what is to be done?

There is also evidence of a strong correlation between people's abilities to learn and the cultures within families and at work. The learning culture within the family plays a major part in attitudes to ongoing education and training. The levels of parents education is an important indicator of chances of children participating in learning. Mothers' education has been shown to have a direct bearing on levels of health, nutrition, and education of children. Without the societies demonstrating a valuing of learning, in multiple ways and at all levels, this is unlikely to change. In societies where family life has been destroyed or weakened through the migrant labour systems and where poverty is dire, how is learning to be valued?

There is also a strong correlation between stimulation in the workplace, levels of literacy used, levels of position, and workers learning attributes. The less stimulated workers are the less they want to learn. If workers are in mindless jobs, they are more likely to go home and watch mindless TV, for example. The literacy cultures at work and home are therefore essential elements in developing learning cultures. Where the majority of citizens are either in menial jobs or are unemployed, what is to be done to achieve this stimulation?

There is much evidence which links people's ability to engage in lifelong learning with the quality and quantity of their initial education and with the diffuse learning environments in which they live. Research shows that the more education you have the more you want. There is a strong correlation in several countries between the level of education and civic participation rates. Given the demographic profile of the majority of citizens in the region, unless radical State interventions are made to improve the learning cultures at home, at schools, within communities and at work, lifelong learning will most probably reinforce the disparities between the educated and uneducated and the rich and poor.

The intervention of the State has been crucial in getting adult education and training to the disadvantaged in various societies through funding regimes, welfare policies, and other incentives. A neo-liberal policy which argues for a minimalist state is not going to be able to produce a 'learning region' which is able to compete globally. Therefore, strong individual and collective State interventions, which entice social and economic partners to support and invest in lifelong learning efforts from initial education, to improving diffuse learning environments, to adult and higher education and training, are necessary. As Mr Justin Ellis, Under-Secretary of Lifelong Learning and Culture in Namibia said[12]

> "HIV/Aids demands a lifelong learning approach. Its about sexuality and changing roles. We have to work simultaneously with children and adults to discuss in new ways. There's a need for partnerships and linkages between government, private sector, civil society; between health institutions, schools, universities, workplaces. Teaching and preaching about Aids has failed. No learning can take place until we take 'learning' seriously. The social status of women must change, their self image must be such that they can negotiate sexual relations as equals. We have to think in much more radical ways to ensure a prosperous future in the Southern African region."

Notes

[1] A version of this paper was first published by the International Journal for Lifelong Education, Volume 20 Nos 1-2, Cambridge, United Kingdom

[2] James Draper 1998 Africa Adult Education Chronologies in Commonwealth Countries, CACE Publications, University of Western Cape, South Africa, is a first attempt to begin to make the histories available.

[3] These statistics come from: Economic and Social Conditions in Southern Africa 1996 - 97 http://www.un.org/Depts/eca/prog/srdc/sa/esoco.htm, Accessed 12 July 2000.

[4] Statistics quoted were obtained from SADC Regional Human Development Report, 1998

[5] Frank Youngman 2000 The political economy of adult education and development, Zed Books, United Kingdom, is not specifically about southern Africa but draws substantially from Botswanan experience.

[6] Susan Brown, Development Consultant, 16/7/2000

[7] A detailed description of adult education within the democratic movement in South Africa is given in Shirley Walters 1989 Education for Democratic Participation, CACE Publications, South Africa

[8] Akpovire Oduaran "Order out of chaos: Repositioning Africa for globalization through lifelong learning" Draft Paper July 2000

[9] These points are developed in Shirley Walters and Linzi Manicom 1996 Gender in Popular Education, Methods for Empowerment, Zed Books, UK

[10] Shirley Walters and Kathy Watters 1999 "Developing the Learning Nationa": A report for the National Department of Education, South Africa, discusses these issues in detail.

[11] Kjell Rubenson and Hans Schuetze "Lifelong learning for the knowledge society: demand, supply and policy dilemmas" in Rubenson and Schuetze (ed) 2000 Transition to the knowledge society UBC Institute for European Studies, University of British Columbia, Canada

[12] Mr Ellis was speaking at an International Conference on Lifelong Learning, Higher Education and Active Citizenship held at the University of Western Cape, Cape Town, 10 – 12 October 2000

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Chapter 6

THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN BOTSWANA

Gbolagade Adekanmbi
Oitshepile Modise

Introduction

Writing a chapter on The State of Adult and Continuing Education in Botswana, in a book that is dedicated to Professor Jones Adelayo Akinpelu, a philosopher of repute in education and adult education, is significant in many ways. This significance is due in part to the recognition that the philosopher in question has earned over the years as a scholar in the field of adult education both in his country of origin, Nigeria, and elsewhere. At another level is the fact that a little over a year before the publication of this major volume on adult and continuing education in Africa, the philosopher was still in post as the founding Director of the University of Botswana's Centre for Continuing Education, a position he occupied from 1994 to 1999. At one end of his career in Nigeria, he concentrated on the theoretical underpinnings of the field, training young people to take up the mantle. At another end of practice, he co-ordinated the transformation of a continuing education centre into one with vision, vigour and mission, in a context that thrives on democratic norms and principles, and understanding the need to promote adult education at all levels of the society.

Developments in the field of adult and continuing education worldwide would seem to suggest that it is an academic discipline that promotes research and professional development. The growth of this discipline has been most noticeable in its contributions to the overall growth of a multi-variety of disciplines that continually fuel its growth. It is also noticeable in its impact on democratisation of educational opportunities; its research orientation to the daily activities of its beneficiaries.

Botswana's adult and continuing education thrusts have been shaped by its own internal cultural paradigms and the influence of practices outside its borders. At the level of practice, the nation has experienced a tremendous upsurge in adult and continuing education activities. The future of the field in this country of 1.4 million people appears bright. Being one of the poorest at Independence, it is one of the fastest growing economies in the world; one in which agricultural extension practices marked the beginning of governmental interest in adult education but whose distance education initiatives are now taking it to the point of a revolution in education. It is a country which is beginning to showcase itself as one of the best examples of a learning society in Africa.

What this chapter hopes to do is to examine the Botswana context as a background to the discourse and highlight the concepts in context. We will then discuss the beginnings of adult and continuing education in the country, the nature of policy formulation and political inputs, and the provision of adult and continuing education at various levels. Also, we will do an examination of various organisations providing adult education in Botswana and highlight the work of some of them involved in the development and training of personnel. We also propose to provide a hint on some major research initiatives in the country's adult and continuing education history. The thesis of this short submission is that adult and continuing education in Botswana has come of age and its impact felt in nearly all the sectors of the economy and social life.

For the purpose of this chapter, we will use the phrase 'adult and continuing education' as a composite term, and where the need arises, emphasise one aspect or the other of the main elements based on institutional use and practices. One term, which has formed the thrust of the nation's National Policy on

Education, "out-of-school's education" will also receive the same level of usage within the chapter.

Adult and Continuing Education in Pre- and Post-Colonial Botswana

Botswana, formerly known as Bechuanaland, is landlocked between South Africa, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. A protectorate of Britain for about 80 years, it became self-governing only in 1965, and finally independent in1966. It has a land area of 582,000 square kilometres with a population estimate of 1,572,000 people in 1998. More than two thirds of its land areais covered by the Kalahari desert and its 'abundant and diverse wildlife population' (Modise, 1999:1). Its ethnic groups include the Batlokwa, Barolong, Bangwaketse, Bakwena, Eakgatla, Bangwato, Balete,Batawana, Bakalanga, Batswapong, Baherero and the Basarwa. The country's political system is based on a multi-party democracy, its official languages are English and Setswana and its main economic reliance is on the export of diamonds, copper and nickel, charcoal, and beef, and for some time, vehicles. Its major trading partners are Zimbabwe and South Africa and the countries of Europe. Before Independence, Botswana was one of the poorest countries in the world, relying mostly on foreign support to meet a variety of needs.

Like many African countries, Botswana's educational landscape before the arrival of the missionaries, and later the colonial ministers, was mostly traditional and informal, relying mostly on the people's lore, proverbs and idioms. These and other expressions of speech helped to provide the much needed caution, discipline, encouragement, sympathy, as well as teaching and forms of rebuke. Idioms were additionally used for entertainment as they provided a source of knowledge. Thus the general pedagogy depended on story telling, its curriculum age-determined and its content of instruction and goals inclusive of elements of knowledge and skills acquisition and attitudinal change. The global dimension was lifelong learning initiative, with dissemination of information as a pivot of educational events. The *kgotla* (village meeting place) was for a long time the major classroom and laboratory for promoting lifelong education and within this, adult and continuing education of all sorts found a berth. Village chiefs facilitated meetings, the *kgotla* disseminated information to community members and even today, new policies and development projects pass through the kgotla route.

As modern technologies began to appear in Botswana such as films, these were shown at the kgotla. Posters, important notices and other tools of communication were and are still placed at the kgotla for people to see. Entire communities used games and popular theatre to educate and disseminate information, with the effect of such on the life of the community proving extremely useful over time. In a way, we can submit that traditional adult education provided entertainment and teaching. And the initiation schools instilled values of manhood and womanhood.

In capturing the community education dimension of traditional adult and continuing education that existed before the advent of missionaries, Schapera cited in Hedenquist in 1992 had noted that everything that had educational purposes and functions were used in the education of everybody.

The family group was the setting for more important domestic events and activities of its component households. Its members associated together constantly, co-operated in such major tasks as building and thatching huts, clearing new fields, weeding and reaping, and help one another with gifts or loans of food, livestock, and other commodities. It dealt as a unit with matters as betrothal and marriage negotiations, the organisation of feasts, the settlement of estates, and the future of widows all of which were held to concern not one household alone but the group as a whole. It's men also met, under the leadership of the elder' to arbitrate over internal disputes, and only if an acceptable compromise could be reached, or if the issues involved were fairly serious, was the matter then referred to the official tribal courts: moreover, should any member be involved at law with outsiders, his selder' and the other men were expected to support him at any preliminary discussions and in the formal hearings at court. This thus represents a way,

by which the people lived, and passed on the traditions of the community from one generation to the other.

Traditional education was, however to some extent interrupted by the arrival of missionaries and colonial masters. The missionaries' aim was to spread the word of God and to turn people into Christians. Inevitably, this was done through Western values, and thus in addition to the spiritual gains derivable from this, Western notions of social life, material goods, economy, and politics came to permeate the Botswana tradition. Notably, the efforts of missionaries to teach literacy and practical skills were welcomed by Botswana. Literacy skills and industrial education proved very useful and brought new knowledge to Botswana. The efforts of missionaries are still being felt in the formal education sector.

In a submission in the publication, *Africa: Adult Education Chronologies in Commonwealth Countries*, Youngman (1998) writing on Botswana, notes the following major landmarks with respect to colonial government intervention in adult and continuing education:

* the stationing in 1931 of an agricultural demonstrator to introduce new methods of crop farming to the Bakgatla.
* the establishment in 1935 by the colonial government of the Department of Agriculture with agricultural extension responsibilities.
* the proposition in 1935 by the new Director of Education that adult education schools be established to teach things of value to men and women and to develop in-service training for primary school teachers.
* the beginning of literacy education for Bechuanaland troops from 1939-1945 as members of the African Pioneer Corps in the Middle East.
* the starting in 1943 of the Mochudi Homecrafts Centre for teaching out-of-school girls Home Economics.
* the establishment by the colonial government of the post of welfare officer in the Department of Education in 1946.

There were other notable developments chronicled by Youngman (1998) such as the public education by radio initiative of Radio Bechuanaland from 1961; the Government proposal on adult education in the First National Development Plan of 1963-68 and the notable establishment of the Serowe Brigade in 1965 by Patrick van Rensburg, a major non-governmental innovative which continues to positively affect the fortunes of adult and continuing education in Botswana till today.

Between these early beginnings and now, adult and continuing education in all sectors of the Botswana economy has witnessed a tremendous growth, with the participation of individuals, government, non-governmental organisations, government parastatals and church organisations being felt across the length and breadth of the country.

The Concepts in context

A return to Youngman's chronology (Youngman, 1998) of adult education in Botswana reflects a wide range of concepts and practices that attempt to put the concepts in context. For example, between 1931 and 1994, which his chronology captures, the following concepts ran through the practices seen. These include agricultural extension, in-service training, literacy, out-of-school education, and audio-visual education for adults, mass media education, vocational adult education, in-service personnel training, community development and co-operative education. Practices also include evening classes, library services, extension education, rural training and development, youth education, distance education, health education, extra-mural education, trade union education, secretarial training, and popular theatre. Others not included but noticeable are prison education, and AIDS Awareness education. Notabl institutions

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mentioned include the various Government ministries, the University of Botswana, the national Radio organ for mass media education as well as the various parastatals spread all over the nation. Other institutional contexts of practice include the armed forces, church organisations, the trade schools, the adult education association, the various colleges of education, technical and vocational centres and others.

We can submit that adult and continuing education in Botswana represents organised, planned, purposeful, intentional, deliberate education, directed toward identified interests or needs of recipients. Most of the programmes in Botswana have adults as target clientele; are usually, but not always part-time; are supplemental to the adult1/4s other full time engagement and are generally characterised by some degree of voluntary participation of the learner. The programmes are also seen to be mostly needs oriented and are aimed at solving specific problems in the society. Quite a number of the programmes are situationally relevant, dealing with matters that are of immediate concern. Most of the programmes are organised out-of-school, or out of the formal system of education and within a multi-variety of institutional framework. Others are purely formal educational programmes, a great variety of agencies beside the government do serve as sponsors of the programmes (Adapted from Akinpelu: 1988: 31-32).

Policy formulation and political inputs

While it is true that adult and continuing education in Botswana is reflected in a multi-variety of ways, its thrust in the *Revised National Policy on Education* is located within out-of-school education. This notwithstanding, a detailed discussion of policy issues on adult and continuing education cannot be fully examined without a recourse to a number of policies in other related sectors. We will therefore examine other submissions on vocational education and training, the industrial development policy, the National Youth Policy document, the policy on Small and Medium Micro Enterprises, the provisions of the National Development Plan 8, and the nation's Vision 2016 which is aimed at further fueling growth and development

Botswana is blessed with visionary leadership. One glaring effect is observable in planners adherence to set national plans and goals in its National Development Plans (NDP's). In the NDP 8 covering the period 1997-2003, the role of Government in education and training is described as being to promote 'overall planning, direction, supervision and general guidance' and this is to be done through be 'curriculum development, certification and reputation of all educational activity' (Republic of Botswana, 1997a: 340). Another major role is 'the provision of education and training across the nation (Republic of Botswana, 1997a: 340). For adult and continuing education, the plan outlines five major activities namely, out of school education for children, adult basic education, extension programmes, continuing education and specialist training. While out-of-school education is offered to children who for various reasons are unable to complete their elementary education, including Junior Secondary Education, adult basic education is for those adults who have never been to and thus need to through basic education. Extension programmes offer adults and young people the opportunity to undertake a variety of programmes in health, agriculture and commerce with the goal of equipping them with techniques, knowledge and skills to generally improve the quality of their lives. Continuing education is to be obtained through training through part-time studies while, various organisations in the public and private sector offer specialised training relevant to their specific areas of activity (Republic of Botswana, 1997a).

The objectives of the plan period are thus to:

- Increase access to education and training opportunities through both formal institutions and out of school means;
- Emphasise vocational training
- Increase the sector's responsiveness to the needs of the labour market of the labour market;
- Improve the quality of instruction;

* Develop a culture of learning as a life long experience;
* Encourage the private sector and Non-Governmental organisations' participation, in the provision of education;
* Ensure cost effectiveness in the provision of education ; and
* Improve information sharing and use for decision making through networking relevant departments and institutions (Republic of Botswana, 1997a: 356)

Commitment to ensuring equal education opportunities to all is clearly articulated in the plan and this is reflected in the objectives of the plan that cover all sectors of education. The policy considers the need for equity in the provision of access to education (Republic of Botswana, 1997a: 356). Adults are thus expected to be beneficiaries of out of school education programmes. The role of the NGO's, community initiatives and private individuals is also empahsized. The high demand for education is recognised in the plan hence the country adopted the strategy of education for all by the year 2000. This has resulted in the implementation of a number of policies emanating from the recommendations of the *Revised National Policy* on Education. The philosophy that guided these strategies is the one that upholds investing in the nation1/4s major resource, the human resource.

The National Commission on Education Report (Republic of Botswana, 1993) reveals clearly the government's support for the informal sector. Sharing of resources is encouraged between the formal and informal sectors. The Commission's articulation of a clear vision in out-of-school education has no doubt placed a lot of emphasis on the education of both young and old. This brings into fruition the position that the likes of Prof Akinpelu have held for many years that education should be seen as a lifelong process. The concept of lifelong education includes formal, informal and continuing education, this is the education system that benefits all members of the society.

A framework for a Long Term Vision for Botswana (Republic of Botswana, 1997b) argues that 'the future Botswana should be a society where there is equality of educational opportunity, and where no citizen should be condemned to the circumstances of their birth' (p.47). The vision also makes a case for the disabled by recommending that all attempts must be made to ensure that disabilities do not in any way limit the participation of any in the society's productive efforts. To this end, those who are 'disabled through old age should be provided with day care centres to facilitate interaction with their compatriots (Republic of Botswana, 1997b: 47). The policy also notes the need for Botswana to 'transform' itself into 'an industrial society' and to this end, 'it must set the highest possible standards for vocational and technical training as well as for academic excellence'(p. 28). In this major commitment to lifelong education, all are expected to benefit, the circumstances of their lives notwithstanding.

The Botswana government has come up with a number of policies regarding different sectors of education as recommended by the Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1994). A report entitled Structure of the Informal sector: A National Training Policy (Republic of Botswana, 1997c) emerging from a study to identify the training needs of entrepreneurs, employees, and potential entrepreneurs in the informal sector, how these training needs might be met was published.

The study outlined a number of issues that needed to be considered in formulating a training policy for the informal sector such as training support for the informal, a distinction between technical and business management skills, an informal sector strategy focusing on reaching the entrepreneurs, training institutions to reach the informal sector, more flexible vocational training, etc. The previous attempts by government included provision, support facilitation of formal vocational training, through running its vocational training centres, financing the brigade training centres, and organising the apprenticeship system (Republic of Botswana, 1997c).

In 1997, the Botswana Government established a National Policy on Vocational Education and Training. The policy places a focus on skills training, both formal and non-formal, lifelong training, public institutional training, employer-based training, and the private training institutions, training for both the formal and informal sectors of the economy including such training that would enhance self employment. Related to this was the Industrial Development Policy for Botswana which was published in 1998. It places a focus on Human Resources Development and Training with emphasis on four major issues. The thrusts of this Industrial Development Policy for Botswana are:

1. The Botswana Training Authority will formulate programmes and policies that will ensure that the education system is oriented to produce graduates with the professional and skill capacities needed by the economy. The authority will develop measures to further increase the emphasis on vocational education.
2. Women and the disabled will be encouraged to participate more fully in the professional, scientific, technical and managerial areas of education. All barriers to effective participation of women and the disabled in training will be removed.
3. A special training fund will be established by the Botswana Training Authority to support flexible on-the-job training programmes to which contributions will be made by Government and employers.
4. Additional private sector representatives will be appointed to the Boards of public institutions providing technological services and training. (Republic of Botswana, 1998:18)

The National Youth Policy was 'established within the broader framework of national development of Botswana which is embodied in the four national principles of democracy, development, self-reliance and unity' (Republic of Botswana, 1996:5). The policy attempts to correct the adverse conditions that were faced by the youth of Botswana. As a result, a National Programme of Action for the Youth of Botswana was published in 1998. The major issues which the programme focused on are:

> unemployment and the need to strengthen education and training opportunities; the HIV/AIDS epidemic and the need for youth friendly health services; the sparcity of sport and recreation activities and the need to provide a more diverse range of opportunities; disadvantaged categories of youth and the need to provide special support; and the need to develop the talent of young people' (RB, 1996: viii)

A recent policy is that on Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) in Botswana and was first published in December 1998. Education, Training and Entrepreneurship are the cornerstone of this policy. The issue of development is a necessary part in this government policy. For this policy's effectiveness, collaboration between industry and the educational systems is considered necessary. A positive move in this regard is the introduction of entrepreneurial training in vocational and education programmes.

The Botswana Training Authority, governed by the Vocational Training Act was established by Government in 1998. The responsibility of this authority is to generally co-ordinate vocational training, monitor and evaluate the performance of the training system and also advise on all policy issues with bearing on vocational training. The establishment of this has been quite significant in ensuring the success of the nation's vocational training programmes.

A Comment on adult and continuing education provisions

With the policies as background, the various adult and continuing education provisions in Botswana fall into a number of categories. There are those which still adhere strictly to the informal and traditional

approaches which the *kgotla* exemplifies. There are others still in this category but which are better seen as practices within the informal sector of the economy involving the education and training of carpenters, artisans, apprentices and other special interest groups. Still in this category are such issues as the use of mass media education where the press and the Radio Botswana fall, and we also have the use of popular theatre as a way of mobilising the community (Ntsatsi, et al, 1998). All these continue to help mobilise the youth, community members and the entire citizenry towards purposeful action, needed behavioural change and effective dissemination of information on health, social issues, community ethos and enhanced democratic values.

There are however other dimensions of provisions such as the participation of Government departments and ministries in the implementation of policies and plans, and the involvement of parastatals, University Centres and Departments, and other non-governmental organisations in the ensurance of quality provision of adult and continuing education. This latter part thus forms a major core of the submission in this section.

Although the agricultural extension activities adhered to at the beginning were major in terms of government-oriented beginning of adult education activities in Botswana, it is in the ministries, parastatals and institutions and in the relationship that exist between them that more detailed design and development of adult and continuing education is to be seen. This is however, not to de-emphasize the major roles played by politicians in sponsoring bills that continually lead to the enactment of needed policies in the nation. As we examine these institutions, reference will be made to the specific aspects of adult and continuing education that have been promoted or emphasised by the departments or institutions considered.

The need for a multi-variety of providers for adult and continuing education in Botswana is underscored by the setting up of the Rural Extension Co-ordination Committee (RECC) and others. RECC is charged with the responsibility of ensuring that all organisations which have something to do with community education and development initiatives in Botswana are properly co-ordinated to avoid duplication of activities and achieve maximum utilisation of resources. In the arrangement for RECC's operation, adult and continuing education thus finds its niche and berth.

The first major dimension of provision as it relates to literacy is seen in the establishment of the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) in 1979 whose Adult Basic Education Unit takes care of literacy programme prosecution. *"The Tradition of illiteracy in Botswana"*, a consultation document, then laid the foundation for the pursuit of the noble ideas of enabling an estimated 250, 000illiterate adults to read and write. The National Literacy Programmelaunched in 1981 has had its successes, and of course needed changes to effect further improvement. A Research and Evaluation Unit was established, English as a second language course was introduced while the AIDS/HIV campaign and environmental education plans were added. In the literacy survey carried out later in 1993, and published in 1997, a national literacy rate of 68.9 per cent was established, with 66.9% and 70.3% being for males and females respectively. (Central Statistics Office and the DNFE, 1997). Data from the report showed that 81% of the eligible population never went to adult literacy classes. This report thus formed the basis for some major reviews and policy plans. A Workplace Literacy programme now exists. An evaluation of the National Literacy Program is expected to take place soon. Supplementary readers for new literates and also for the road safety school are now being prepared in English and Setswana. The Department also works constantly with the Department of Adult Education and the Centre for Continuing Education of the University, as well as the Botswana National Library Service, the Ministry of Health, and others relevant institutions to achieve high levels of functionality in its programmes.

While the DNFE has literacy as a major focus, its involvement in distance education activities started with the work of its Unit of Distance Education. This division has now been reestablished in the Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning (BOCODOL) by an Act of Parliament. As an autonomous parastatal, BOCODOL, with some 2000 students has students undertaking the Junior Certificate and O1/4Level courses throughout Botswana. However, BOCODOL has a vocational training mandate and is thus establishing links with the Department of Vocational Education and Training, the MadireloTraining and Testing Centre and the Construction Industry Training Fund of the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs to see how it can effectively run vocational courses.

Still in the Ministry of Education is the Department of Teacher Training and Development (DTT&D) which sees to the day to day training of in service training of all pre-tertiary level service teachers in Botswana. It does this in conjunction with the Teaching Service Management, Department of Primary Education and other Government agencies, including the Ministry of Finance. It oversees the activities of Education centres spread all over the country and works with the Centre for Continuing Education University of Botswana to train over 9000 serving primary school teachers who are being upgraded to the Diploma level through the distance education mode.

In the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs, the National Youth Council organises training activities for youths. The work of the ministry however includes other cultural activities, libraries, museums, national archives and the Women's Affairs Unit. Literacy and other civic education programmes for prisoners are also provided under the aegis of this ministry.

A major responsibility for community development activities and initiatives is borne by the Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing. This supervision is done through its Social Welfare and community Development Unit and partly through the Remote Area development unit. In the latter unit, groups of people who live in the remote areas are given assistance while in the former, the work of all community development workers are co-ordinated. A Women Affairs Unit also exists in the minister to co-ordinate activities of women at local and national levels, disseminate information to women and all aspects of development, increase women's general awareness levels, and ensure that all organisation in Botswana incorporate the gender dimension of their activities.

On health education issues, the Ministry of Health co-ordinates, implements and evaluates the National health policies and strategies; health promotion and ill-health prevention. It also engages in health care and curative services; health research, investigative and technical support; health manpower development and utilisation and health administration. A joint Primary Health Care Conduction Committee exists to co-ordinate this and actual adult education and training is done through the provision of information, training, supervision, material production and distribution and special referral care (Ntsatsi, et al, 1998). Teachings are also done during anti-natal and post natal clinic visits. It needs to be pointed and that the Institute of Health Sciences in Serowe runs a nursing education programme by distance education. A follow-up programme to this is being planned by the Department of Nursing, University of Botswana.

Adult and continuing education at the Ministry of Agriculture is carried out through the Department of Crop Production and Forestry (DCPF), Department of Animal Health and Production and the Division of Agricultural Information and Public Relations. While technical extension services are provided in the DCPF, extension workers provide knowledge, skills and mobilise attitude change with respect to introducing better and farming methods and crop production. The DAHP through its veterinary assistants provides education aimed at controlling and eradicating animal diseases, artificial insemination technologies and pest control, among others. The Department of Agricultural Information organises self-education programmes through radio slots and inserts in the newspapers. Agricultural trade shows are

also held. The Department of Co-operatives, offer help to farmers on how to organise agricultural co-operatives. In all these cases, various village level organisations such as the Village Development Committees, District Development Committees and a host of others are involved to help mobilise the people for change.

Other governmental agencies and parastatals such as the Institute for Development Management, the Botswana National Productivity Centre, the Botswana Council of Commerce, Industry and Mines help organise series of workshops, seminars and conference aimed at enhancing higher productivity, providing entrepreneurial skills, developing the management cadre of the economy in various areas. In these activities, the institutions liaise with the University of Botswana and other organisations to identify resource persons, clients to ensure high quality training and impact on the society.

A survey of non-governmental organisations involved in adult and continuing education provisions in Botswana shows that they are categorised as voluntary, non-profit agencies and donor agencies, among others. Another classification done by NORAD (1995) in its publication. A Directory of Non-Governmental Organisations in Botswana lists them as assisting organisations, Children and Youth, Disabled Persons, environmental conservation, Farmers, Rural Producers and Women. Specific examples within this categorisation thus include the Emang Basadi Women's Association, the Botswana Young Women's Christian Association, Botswana Council of Women, the Corporation for Research Development and Education (CORDE), the Lutheran Church, Botswana Christian Council, Botswana Youth Centre, Lesedi Day CareCentre and others. Donor organisations include the African Development Foundation, British Council, International Labour Organisation, United Nations Development Programme and the United States Agency for International Development, among others.

The main thrust of the work of the NGO's with respect to adult and continuing education activities has been to fill gaps in government provision with respect to training in specific areas. This is what the NGO's seek to do by:

* Organising workshops on AIDS with a view to further creating awareness.
* Undertaking income-generating projects and training people to manage such
* Carrying out country outreach.
* Providing information and training on how to manageresources and funds for developing rural committees.
* Raising awareness on social issues.
* Providing leadership training.
* Assisting with community mobilisation efforts.
* Promoting literacy education and functional literacy and thus promoting the teaching of indigenous languages.
* Leading discussions and dialogues on human rights issues.

Maruatona (1996) while noting the role of NGO's in Botswana with respect to the National Policy on Education has observed that their roles are not freely spelt out, and where this is noticeable, it is quite negligible. In the National Development Plan 8, Government notes that 'large private sector firms or parastatals undertake training that is directly related to their operations' and that the 'apprenticeship scheme is a joint venture between the public and private education sectors.' (Republic of Botswana, 1997a:340). However, it must also be noted that many NGO's are indeed supporting and leading in mobilising the community in various areas of need, especially those related to rural development education and training, and other forms of social learning.

The vital organizations in the provision of adult and continuing education at the tertiary level are the Department of Adult Education and the Centre for Continuing Education, University of Botswana. The Department of Adult Education provides scholarship and research in the areas of:

* Non-formal education for out-of-school children and youth.
* Adult basic education.
* Extension programmes.
* Training and development in the workplace.

In addition, the Department is responsible for the training of adult educators at various levels. Thus of the Department, which emerged from its precursor, the Institute of Adult Education offers the Certificate, Diploma, Masters, M.Phil and Ph.D programmes in adult education. It has, in conjunction with the Centre for Continuing Education, offered the Certificate in Adult Education programme since 1983, with more than 300 students completing the programme at a distance. The Department is represented in the Botswana Adult Education Association, the Distance Education Association of Southern Africa, the Rural Extension Co-ordinating Committee and the National Literacy Advisory Committee as well as the Africa Development Fund. It holds a monthly seminar at which current research issues on adult education are examined. It also organises the Basic Extension Training Skills (BEST) course annually to train rural extension workers. Its staff and student research cover a wide range of topics. The Department also works closely with RECC to help identify extension workers needs and thus determine the type of training suitable for them. Staff of the Department of Adult Education participate in the activities of the Botswana Adult Education Association, the Distance Education Association of Southern Africa and the International Council for Distance Education.

Another major training organ is the Centre for Continuing Education of the University of Botswana. The centre, like the Department of Adult Education, was part of the original Division of Extra-Mural Studies, which later became the Institute of Adult Education. With the Centre gaining some level of continuity in 1991, it became fully separated as an outreach arm of the University with a national mandate to be the lead agency for the provision of part-time and distance education programmes at the tertiary level in Botswana. Even with an emphasis to prepare adults and young people for self employment, it also has the goal of preparing the necessary human resources for the economy (CCE, 1996, Adekanmbi, 1998). The Centre operates through four units. The Extra-Mural Unit designs, develops and organises part-time credit and non-credit educational programmes namely the Certificate and Diploma in Accounting and Business Studies aimed at training accountants. It is currently working on the implementation of the Bachelor of Business Studies programme. It organises a Gender and Development short course annually. It also organises a variety of workshops for a wide range of clientele.

Through its Distance Education Unit, it works in collaboration with the Department of Adult Education to run the Certificate in Adult Education programme, the Diploma in Primary Education and has plans for the running of an M.Ed programme in conjunction with the Department of Educational Foundations. It also plans to run the Bachelor of Nursing programme at a distance. At present, it collaborates with the Zimbabwe Open University and the Department of Culture and Youth to provide support for the Diploma in Youth in Development Work Programme.

Through the Public Education Unit, the Centre organises public awareness programs, lectures, conferences and seminars. In the recent past, there have been such topics covered as Customary Courts, Crime Prevention in Botswana, AIDS, Patients' Bill of Rights in Botswana Hospitals and -Strategies for Food Security in Botswana (Adekanmbi, 1998).

The Technical Support Unit, when fully developed is expected to support the work of the other units through provision of counseling, research, evaluation, media support for clients.

During Prof. Akinpelu's tenure as the founding Director of the Centre that the Botswana Annual Adult Literacy Forum was begun. It examined the themes; Adult Literacy and the Alleviation of Poverty in 1995, Adult Literacy in the National Policy on Education in 1996, Adult Literacy and Social development in 1997 and Literacy and Community Participation in 1998 (Adekanmbi, Sekhobo and Tsiane, 1998). He started the compilation and publication of the CCE Annual Report; started the CCE Newsletter; instituted the Annual National Workshop on Continuing Education and it was also during his time that the Diploma in Primary Education Program at a distance was planned. He restructured the Centre into four distinct units for greater efficiency. He instituted the monthly CCE Seminar and presented the first CCE Inaugural Lecture to the University of Botswana academic community in November 1997.

Another agency that has done a lot by way of promoting the education and training of adult educators in Botswana is the Botswana Agricultural College, established in 1967 with the aim of providing training Certificate programme in agriculture and animal health and production. Now known as the Botswana College of Agriculture, it is specially affiliated to the University of Botswana, and started the Diploma in Agriculture and Animal Health and Production in 1981. While the BCA trains agricultural extension workers, the Centre for In-Service and Continuing Education(CICE), was established in 1990 to promote, co-ordinate and deliver short courses and continuing education programmes in agriculture. It also develops and publishes materials on agricultural extension. Usually the courses are for serving officers. The Centre organises in-service refresher courses.

There are also the Rural Training Centres that provides programmes which are similar to those of the BCA and the CICE. The RTC's however have as their focus farmers on the field with allowance given for the direct demonstration of new farming techniques and methods. They offer vocational training, informal out-of-school education and help farmers to adopt new methods of farming. These centres exist in Denman, Mahalapye, Francistown and Ngamiland.

Research and publications

The place of research in the formation and fueling of ideas, as well as the nurturing of thoughts for the growth of adult and continuing education in Botswana is worthy of note. While the University of Botswana has played a leading role in this regard, there have been other agencies and individuals that have made major contributions to this dimension of adult and continuing education promotion.

All the efforts, presentations and submissions that have gone into the National Development Plans which have had implications for adult and continuing education policies and practices are noteworthy research pursuits aimed at promoting and improving practice in the field. The UNESCO Report on Bechuanaland Educational Planning Mission, released in 1964 (Youngman, 1998) had documented the existence of adult education and continuing education provisions in the country, thus paving the way for later developments. By 1972, the address given by the then Director of Extra-Mural Services of the University of Botswana titled 'Adult Education for Botswana' also provided some kind of a way forward for the needed provisions. A government structured study of gender and adult education whose report was published by the Ministry of Agriculture and titled *Women's Involvement in Agriculture* in 1974 (Youngman, 1998) provided a major statement in the direction of women involvement in adult education practices.

Major reviews carried out included that of the situation of community development staff at the local government level and this led to the publication of the Report of the Community Development Review

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Committee. Two commissions were set up which later emerged with the Reports of the National Commission on Education that have far-reaching implications for out-of-school educational provisions in Botswana. A systematic compilation of Adult Education in Botswana 1960-1980. A classification of Adult Education provisions in Botswana was a major entry in the Ministry of Education published ISCE Handbook for Botswana in1982. *Towards Improving Extension Services* was published in the same year by the Rural Extension Co-ordinating Committee while a detailed Directory of the Non-governmental Organisations in Botswana was developed by the Norwegian Agency for International Development in 1985. Youngman (1998)also reports that by 1986, the first Ph.D thesis to be completed by Botswana citizen in adult education was presented by Samora Gaborone to the University of Southampton, UK, it was titled *The Political Economy of Agricultural Extension in Botswana'*. At present, a number of research initiatives are being pursued by at least four citizen staff from the Department of Adult Education and one from the Centre for Continuing Education on an aspect of distance education.

There have been other major interventions. For example, three inaugural lectures have been given at the University of Botswana with particular focus on community-related work and adult and continuing education. In November1992, Miriam Button presented a lecture on Social Work: An Extension of Community; Jones Akinpelu presented his lecture on *Equity and Quality in University Continuing Education* in November 1997 while Frank Youngman presented an inaugural lecture on behalf of the Faculty of Education titled' *Old Dogs and New Tricks? Lifelong Education for All- The Challenge facing Adult and Continuing Education in Botswana* in 1998.

The Centre for Continuing Education has produced the Annual Report for the1995/6, 1996/7, 1997/8 and 1998/9 and the 1999/2000 sessions. In addition, the Centre publishes the CCE Newsletter twice a year, with its Distance Education Unit publishing The Distance Educator twice a year. The Department of Adult Education of the University also publishes the DAE Newsletter once a year. At present, the Department of Adult Education is involved in Research into the training and development in the workplace and also youth work training. Some of the major annual conferences run by Centre for Continuing Education include the National Workshop in Continuing Education, for practitioners, the Botswana Annual National Adult Literacy Forum, the Gender and Development workshop for participants in the Southern African region and international areas; the Improve Your Business Program; Computer courses and a host of education awareness programmes, among others. Staff from these two units of the University participate actively in international conferences where results of their researches have been presented.

Conclusion

Adult and continuing education in Botswana has come of age. The traditional adult education practices which the *kgotla* emphasises; the wisdom of the proverbs and idioms of the people; and the values which the tribes hold onto so dearly have neither faded as a result of the missionary intervention, nor have they been totally removed by way of colonial or post Independent adult and continuing education offerings. What began in non-formal terms with the agricultural extension practices of the early 1930's has blossomed into more systematic offerings in the form of formal adult education, media education, community development and education, prison education, co-operative and consumer training, trade union education, adult literacy, extra-mural provisions and distance education.

The transformation of distance education practices from its earliest informal thrusts into more formal programmes at the Certificate, Diploma, Degree and Masters' levels, and the continuing attempts to additionally meet secondary and vocational education needs have all been the hallmark of the changes in the adult and continuing education scene in Botswana. Provision in the area of nursing upgrade programmes, teacher upgrading, Master of Education programmes and such other collaborative ventures have been recorded. While the National Development Plans have since the first, opened up areas of need

and indeed led to the establishment of Commissions, the subsequent policies on education which became revised have provided for theoreticians and practitioners alike new ways of addressing out-of-school education with the result that a merger of conventional education practices and non-traditional provisions is becoming more and more valuable.

The establishment of the University of Botswana has been a major influence in the training and development of personnel for promoting change and continuity in adult and continuing education. Train-the-trainers programmes, formal education and training and direct intervention programmes are being run; links with other agencies and policy making bodies are continually being made; and the fueling of research initiatives is being done. The efforts of staff and others at the Department of Adult Education and the Centre for Continuing Education have had tremendous impact in many ways. These and other dimensions of intervention by various ministries, departments and, village level agencies and non-governmental organisations have given a new impetus to the growth of the field.

In conclusion, the state of adult and continuing education in Botswana is a commendable one. Its dynamic thrusts in attempting to shape the nation's future is quite obvious justas its reflection of the nation's penchant for stability and change. The adult and continuing education credo is further seen in the nation's readiness to create enabling policies for practice and as well as the provision of appropriate implementation strategies to react to internal needs and global challenges. Yet at another level, the yearning for workplace and computer literacy, and the desire for raising the technological awareness of the people speak volumes of a nation's adult and continuing education that is experiencing real growth and development. In all these, we also see the desire of a nation to achieve global parity. It does become obvious that further developments within the national economy will continually take a cue from the adult and continuing education pursuits and plans in this nation which should, for these and others, pride itself as a learning society.

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Chapter 7

CREATING A KNOWLEDGE SOCIETY THROUGH DISTANCE AND OPEN LEARNING IN CAMEROON

Ajaga Nji

Introduction

Revolutions and revelations in development theory within the last decade or so have shownthat the majority of the development programs which focus on economic growth and improvement of the Gross National Product (GNP), consistently by-pass a very important segment of the population in developing countries. This group consists of the rural and urban poor, for whom education is crucial if they are to participate effectively in making the decisions that affect their lives (Tchakoa and Nji, 1998; Burkey, 1993; Chambers et al., 1990; Nji, 1979, 1981; Coombs et al., 1973; Coombs and Ahmed, 1974; 1975; Axinn 1976; Niehoff and Neff, 1977).

Within the last two decades (1980-1999), a new and equally deprived group joined the ranks of the destitute and disenfranchised the urban and new poor (Nji, 1994; World Bank, 1995). Yet, since the 1970s, the attention of development planners, decision-makers and specialists are being drawn to the merits of distance education as an effective strategy to increase wider access to educational opportunities and to satisfy the variety of educational needs of learners, particularly adults (Verduin and Clark 1991:4). Learning by adults falls in three categories:

i) *adult basic education*, which refers to the teaching of adults according to any organized formal or informal plan of education.... with the ultimate goal of helping adults better their occupational opportunities and quality of life;

ii) *career education* involves helping adults to prepare for a vocation or profession or to upgrade their job-related skills. This type of distance education tends to have the largest number of students because of its goal-appeal. Often, working and unemployed adults must enroll in courses continuously or recurrently because of the ever-increasing pace of change in the job market and the need for new skills. People out of work seek retraining to enable them fit into a job market in constant flux. As Verduin and Clark (1991:7) have noted, most proprietary education at a distance, and much of the post-secondary distance study that takes place through colleges and universities, is undertaken by adults to prepare for, upgrade, or change careers.

iii) *Leisure and enrichment education*, is the type of adult education that seeks to provide adults learning experiences that enable them to achieve the highest point in the legendary Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs, Self-actualization. Self-actualization or self-fulfillment is achievable when well-tailored educational programmes enrich the lives of participating students as well as those with whom they interact. This takes place through the development of both self-esteem and a sense of well-being. A good number of adult learners studying at home would take a course merely for personal interest or self-improvement. Many senior citizens fall in this group of learners at a distance.

The benefits to the learner

The flexibility of timing makes distance learning especially attractive for people who otherwise cannot obtain the desired knowledge or acquire needed skills through on-campus instruction. Fortunately, numerous agencies and organizations now offer distance education using various media and state-of-the-art technologies. These include night and day classes, week-end programmes, with greater use of tele-

computer conferencing, internet and even traditional classroom situations.

ODL shares much in common with *nonformal education*, broadly described as *a method of assessing the needs and interests of adults and out-of-school youth*, Coombs et al, (1973); Niehoff and Neff (1997). In their view, nonformal education plays a crucial role in developing countries because it provides opportunities for communicating with both the young and adult learners, motivating them to participate in development projects, helping them to acquire skills and *adopt behavioural patterns which could lead to increased productivity and improvements in living standards.*

Yet, experience with rural development in Africa within the last three decades demonstrates that formal school programs have bypassed the needs of the rural poor, perhaps because most of the education programs were founded on a much narrower conception of development. Very often, they reflect a rather narrow vision of the problems because of the professional biases and self interests of programme designers, policy-makers and politicians.

Consequently, education for rural development, which theoretically concentrated training efforts on adults, sought to use conventional methods most suitable for education of the youth with very little concern for quality, relevance and the efficiency of the programmes.

However, successful rural development requires integration between sector programmes and multidimensional analysis and interventions. For example, the successful transformation of rural communities will depend on careful and concerted efforts on the part of specialists in agriculture, small industry and commerce, transportation and irrigation, health, nutrition, and other aspects of human activity including co-operatives and community development.

This implies that successful rural development programs must tap the advantages provided by innovative and alternative educational approaches such as ODL. These benefits cover all aspects of living and take into consideration the needs of deprived, marginalized peoples and populations with special needs.

Stressing the ubiquity of Nonformal Education, Niehoff (1977) reiterates that where there is concern with basic human problems, good Nonformal Education will be found. I argue on this score that similarly, development programmes that encourage ODL are likely to cover the basic needs of the poor and other socially disadvantaged groups in society who do not benefit as they should from conventional education programmes. These groups include women, the handicapped, subsistence cultivators, school drop-outs, unemployed graduate, working mothers and busy professionals who desire to up-grade their skills.

Social scientists have continued to express concern over the failure of the formal educational system, particularly its inability to take into account the contextual issues involved in social change and development and their corresponding impact on resource allocation and the alternation of the opportunity structure of many people.

If African countries adopt ODL as a key component in poverty alleviation strategies, they will be able to improve, up-grade and disseminate new skills at lower costs with greater multiplier effects for many people and in areas needed by learners

What went wrong with on-campus instruction?

A major criticism of residential instruction is its *rigidity:* Fixed and rigid formal rules of access and exit, registration procedures and above all its lack of flexibility to adapt to changing needs and circumstances. On campus studies are *location-specific*. As such, they do not offer the time flexibility that comes with

distance learning. Students are subjected to blanket, structured standards with regular time-tables. This makes it difficult for working adults to *learn while they earn* as the slogan of the Distance Education Programme at the University of Dschang says.

The absence of *relevance* is another indictment against on-campus instruction. On-campus curricula in Africa have tended to perpetuate the absorption of classical concepts and procedures that are generally incompatible with the socio-cultural environments and social realities of learners. This is due in part to heavy dependence on textbooks, educational technology, processes and development standards developed in the advanced countries.

Needs Assessment and the Distance Education Programmes at Dschang

Since ODL programmes are demand-driven, problem-oriented and learner-centred, their success depends on a proper needs assessment before the design stage and careful monitoring during implementation. Audience targeting helps to achieve the goals of ODL. This is why the first step in the design of the Distance Education Programme (DEP) at the University of Dschang was to conduct a nationwide survey of potential students to determine who they are, where they are, what they do, what courses they would be interested in by order of preference, how and who will pay for them, their access to various technology, income and educational levels etc.

The 1991 study enabled the distance education team to achieve this goal. Through a participatory research approach, potential students could inform the project initiators about gaps in their education, their availability, their social and economic circumstances and environmental constraints. The Needs Assessment Study was carried out by Cameroonian scientists who themselves were later to plan and design the curriculum for certificates and diplomas in Tropical Agriculture by distance from the University of Dschang.

The content of each of the 20 courses on the programme have wide applicability to other African countries. Practical exercises and mail-in assignments are designed with relevance in mind, as well as utility and applicability as indicators to measure the quality and relevance of the programme. One student who is currently enrolled in the programme wrote, after taking two courses: prior to taking your applied rural sociology course, I had taken a course from a British University in rural sociology but it is not anything compared to the course offered in Dschang. In her words, the Applied Rural Sociology course from DEP Dschang is more relevant, has more meaning and contains more practical examples that I can understand and see everyday than the one I took from Britain (personal communication).

Another student who had taken another course from our Programme was able to get the author of one of the courses on the Programme to make major corrections to a graph in the course, because the model answer she received for a mail-in assignment was different from the one supplied by the teacher. When the student wrote to the Programme Coordinator about the discrepancy, the Coordinator got another teacher in the discipline to cross check the student's complaint. Indeed, the student was right. This is one example where distance education can enable students to participate in improving the quality and relevance of their education, particularly if such education responds to their felt-needs.

Issues in distance education for human progress in Africa

Distance Learning is being proposed here as an effective strategy for capacity building and human resource development. A strategy that can be achieved at reduced costs to accelerate the process of human progress and sustainable development on the African continent. The capacity of the process to achieve its desired and stated goals is subject to the resolution of four major issues. These include, how to:

- spread educational opportunities so as to meet the basic needs of the majority of the youths and adults in rural and urban areas;
- improve the quality and effectiveness of existing and future educational programmes vis-à-vis the national development priorities of African countries;
- effectively integrate and coordinate residential instruction with learning at a distance;
- make distance education sustainable in African countries.

In an illuminating discussion, Roling (1988), examined the relationship between technology, which he referred to as Technical Innovation (TI), and man, or what might be roughly equated to his Human Resource Development (HRD). Using outreach in agriculture and rural development as the background for his analysis, Roling (1988: 13) maintained that most of the world's extension workers and agencies are engaged in TI, in which extension is seen as an instrument for increasing the efficiency of production. HRD on the contrary focuses not on developing natural resources through people, but on rural people themselves and on the social system in which they function.

The emphasis of the analysis in this chapter is on people as actors and the ultimate beneficiaries of all development efforts. In Africa, we must put particular emphasis on the role and future of the farmer because of the key functions that agriculture fulfills in our societies as: a) the greatest employer of labour; b) the greatest source of raw materials for development, and c) the largest provider of goods that earn foreign exchange for emerging nations.

Another area of emphasis should be on the high rate of unemployment among high school and university graduates as well as drop-outs. These persons cannot find jobs either because of dysfunctional educational standards, negating personal characteristics or mitigating social and economic forces in African economies.

The primary role of distance education should be to improve the quality and efficiency of human capital taking into account the unique social, cultural political and economic system in which people operate. The importance of the human factor in agricultural extension has also been emphasized by Garforth (1987) who suggested that the roots of inequities and lack of opportunity in agricultural extension ought to be traced to:

- poor access to extension services by small and poor farmers;
- promotion of inappropriate technologies;
- unequal distribution of power within rural societies, and
- prevalence of a crippling value system of the dominant class in each society.

Education in Africa suffers from poor access, lack of pertinence, inequalities and dominant elitist value systems. While this discourse agrees with the line of thought advanced by Roling (1988) and Garforth (1987), it goes further to proffer that conventional strategies to bring about desired changes among the poor are not sufficient basis for hope in the 21st Century. In addition, emphasis must shift from technology transfer for growth, to technology development, innovation, acquisition and utilization for people-centred development (Nji, 1992). In this way, through participatory technology development (PTD), educational strategies in African can become more relevant, problem-centred, environmentally sound and culturally relevant for overall human progress.

The Echoes from Cameroon

Interestingly and happily for development scientists, policy-makers in Africa are beginning to awaken to the call for consideration of the human factor in development. Recently, the Minister of Higher Education in Cameroon, Mr. Jean Marie Atangana Mebara declared in his opening remarks at a meeting with

University lecturers in Dschang in November 1998 that the most precious resource that any nation should learn to manage well is human resources. Any nation that does not do that is doomed.

In other pronouncements, Mr. Atangana Mebara has been up-beat about the prospects that distance education has for Cameroon's higher education future. He remarked that: distance education is the road into the future of effective broad-based education in higher education in Cameroon. We must multiply the Dschang experience because we can no longer afford to build large lecture halls on campus.

On another occasion marking the Convocation Ceremony at the University of Buea Mr. Atangana Mebara (1999:7) stated that looking at higher education more globally, we must realize that Higher Education in the 21st Century will be more competitive, more complex and more comprehensive .our ability to cope with the challenges depends on the preparedness of our institutions to compete in the global system of higher education. He exhorted the Vice Chancellor of the University to explore ways and means of introducing distance education at the University of Buea because open learning and continuous education are central to some of the changes that we are now advocating in the Ministry, (Mebara, 1999:12). A dual mode of education delivery (residential and distance) will increase access to higher education while reducing pressure on increasingly limited fiscal and physical resources in Higher Education Institutions nation-wide.

The positive response to distance education from Cameroonian policy-makers and politicians is coming 12 years after the pioneer distance education project in the country was started at the University of Dschang. A project that came in, not through the traditional door of government initiative, but through the backdoor of stubborn, no nonsense go-getter behaviour and innovativeness of individuals within the system.

As a matter of fact, four lecturers from the Faculty of Agriculture at the University of Dschang became frustrated by an elitist system of admission by entrance examination to the 5 year agricultural training programme. Each year, approximately 5,000 candidates would sit for the exam but only 100 would be accepted because of limited space and government planning.

As Dschang is the only national institution for agricultural training and education at the tertiary level, at least 4,900 disappointed individuals who would have liked to study agriculture are denied access through of government policy. This creates an elite class of agriculturalists since all of them were automatically absorbed into the Cameroon Public Service.

The DEP was a quiet revolution to combat legitimate denial of access. The four lecturers who wrote the project proposal applied to CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency) for funding. Approval for the project was received through competitive bidding which saw 11 out of 119 projects selected for funding that year. The main objective of the five year project (1991-1996) was to develop a Two-Year FTE (Full Time Equivalent) diploma programme in Tropical Agriculture by distance at the University of Dschang.

After the needs assessment study that ended in late 1991, the programme initiators expanded membership to a core team of 12 lecturers who then planned, designed and implemented a 20 course curriculum leading to the award of certificates and diplomas in three options: *Animal Production, Crop Production, and Agricultural Entreprise Management.* The Programme which was officially inaugurated by the Permanent secretary in the Ministry of Higher Education on April 30, 1996 now has 238 students. A total of 950 course booklets have been sold at the price of US$30 a course.

Programme Design

The experience from Dschang has confirmed generally accepted empirical evidence that the conceptual and structural issues surrounding distance education cannot be resolved in a hurry. What is needed is foresight on the part of project initiators and managers, *and commitment and political will* to get the initiative going on a sustainable basis by politicians and policy-makers. Also, participation by beneficiaries at all levels of the programme from design to evaluation is crucial to guarantee success, relevance and quality.

Mr. Atangana Mebara's declarations and policy statements are indicative of a new trend in Cameroonian Higher Education thought portraying a dim light at the end of the higher education tunnel in Cameroon. It is important that public policy be backed by concrete actions if we are to tame one of Africa's most perpetual and stubborn animals: poverty.

Once a collaborative relationship has been established between all the actors concerned by, and interested in the process, a number of factors have to be taken into consideration for the implementation of effective distance education programmes in Africa. These considerations include, but are not limited to:

Structural Reforms

Access to educational opportunities in Africa is persistently biased in favour of cities and towns with easy access. Teachers prefer to work in cities than in village schools; and educational technology tends to be less available in remote villages where school children are taught the duties of a policemen even though they have never seen one. The primary consideration in the effective development and promotion of distance learning should be to reduce structural inequalities between urban and rural schools. In Cameroon, the programme at the University of Dschang became the first official functional distance education programme in Cameroon, particularly since the 1993 Reform in Cameroon's higher education system.

Focus

Taking cognizance of the biases of existing formal education programmes and how they limit opportunities and dwarf the needs of learners, special effort should be made to focus programmes on the most seriously neglected groups (Coombs, 1973), such as women and young people. Some of them might be unable to go to school full time because of work-related and family constraints, while others may be unable to pay the high cost of full-time university education. Others still may be drop-outs who now need special skills in specific work-related areas to make up for lost opportunity (Nji 1985).

For example, it is estimated that only 51% of the world's male youth ages 10-24 (41% for females) were enrolled in secondary school in 1996. In Cameroon, the enrollment rate in 1980 was 24% for male and 13% for female. Ten years later in 1990, the secondary school enrollment ratio increased only slightly to 28% for male and almost doubled to 23% for female youth ages 10-24 (World Bank, 1995:190-191).

However, less than 25% of all higher education enrollments in Cameroon are female. The DEP at Dschang is targeting women, young agriculturalists, agricultural technicians, and people on the fringe. So far, 15% of currently enrolled DEP students are female.

Problems of limited infrastructure and financial resources cannot meet up with the rapidly expanding population in Cameroon's higher education system. From a University student population of 213 in 1961, the number jumped to 3,334 in 1971, to 10,676 in 1981, and more than quadrupled to 39,181 in 1991. These numbers jumped to 59,287 in 1998 and increased by 18% to 70,000 students in the current academic year (Sanyal, 1999:11). It is important to note that these increases have not been matched by expected

corresponding increases in infrastructure. On the contrary, on-campus resources have deteriorated and funding to higher education severely cut as a result of serious economic crisis.

These data indicate that critical population groups are likely to be left out of the conventional educational stream unless innovation takes place in education to increase wider access by the majority to life-long learning opportunities. Distance education offers planners and policy makers the opportunity to focus educational programmes to groups and regions with the greatest needs.

Content

For all human beings, the satisfaction of biological needs is a prerequisite to human progress. Development literature is replete with comments and analyses showing that the most chronic problems in developing countries is the inability of the majority of their citizens to live full and fulfilling lives as a result of widespread poverty, ignorance and disease.

Therefore, in the design of distance education programmes care must be taken to build programme contents provide learning opportunities for capacity building in the satisfaction of basic needs for food, shelter, clothing and health. Along with these goals is the need to build survival strategies and coping mechanisms through education on topic areas such as work, family, the formation of a civil society and mutual interdependence.

The DEP in Dschang tried to integrate these concerns and awareness in its design. The courses being offered allow students the flexibility to select *required courses* and *electives* from the following list of 20 courses: Animal Nutrition and Pastures; Food Technology; Pig Production; Cattle, Sheep and Goat Production; Poultry and Rabbits Production; Perennial Crops; Food Crops; Vegetable Crops; Applied Soil Science; Crop Protection; Irrigation and Drainage; Crop Processing and Storage; Agricultural Extension; Applied Rural Sociology; Agricultural Economics; Agricultural Credit and Finance; Farm Management; Agricultural Marketing; Project Analysis and Agro-forestry.

Programme Integration

Distance education should be integrated and coordinated with formal on-campus programmes to avoid duplication of effort and waste of resources. Careful integration will maximize educational opportunities and widen the options available to learners.

The establishment of institutional linkages between distance learning centres and on-campus programmes will greatly enhance teaching effectiveness, and also promote programme relevance for individual fulfillment and national development. Genuine efforts in programme integration will increase opportunities for social and cultural values to be included in educational programmes that are demand-driven and needs-specific.

In the programme at Dschang, students can acquire skills from single courses, combine a number of courses towards a certificate, or complete a number of certificates towards a diploma. Students who successfully earn a diploma may continue their studies in the Faculty of Agriculture at the University of Dschang in Year 3 of a 5-Year Agricultural Training Programme.

Selection at this level is by a special entrance examination. The diploma curriculum is designed to correspond to the first two years of the 5-year degree-level programme. By allowing entry into Year 3, students are able to maintain continuity in their studies without loss of time.

Appropriate Media and Technology

The choice of appropriate media and technology is crucial for the success and sustainability of distance education programmes. The appropriateness of the technology and delivery media from the point of view of technical effectiveness and affordability should determine technology choice so that the technology may meet the needs of a wide variety of end-users with a broad range of prospects, perspectives and problems.

Also important is the timing of distance education programmes with careful consideration for *flexibility and adaptability*. Where full time personnel and full-fledged programmes are not yet available, it appears desirable that opportunities be created for delivery of services even on a part-time basis with partial programmes that presently fulfill the needs of learners. The ultimate goal should be to improve the quality of life of learners through the selection of appropriate media and technology that enhance knowledge acquisition, dissemination, and application.

In view of the fact that developing countries are at a technological disadvantage, care must be taken in the choice of technology for delivery of distance learning programmes. Media selection must ensure that not only should the message be relevant from an individual as well as from an institutional perspective, the technologies used should be available and compatible with the socio-cultural context and circumstances of the learners (Nji, 1992).The primary means of instructional delivery for the programme in Dschang is print materials. The material for each course is consolidated in a course booklet which incorporates self study questions and exercises. Students request mail-in assignments when they are ready, and each course has 2-3 assignments.

The needs assessment survey conducted in 1992 showed that less than 5% of the respondents had access to video equipment although about 50% owned tape-recorders. Telephone and internet are for all of them, sheer dreams. We, therefore, designed the course matérial with these facts in mind in response to the expectations and the study environment of the students.

Flexibility is built into the programme by having an open entry and exit policy. Students register when they are ready and discontinue from the programme when they feel compelled to do so. However, to guarantee the quality of the programme, three main principles apply:

1. All course authors are required to change their mail-in assignments once a year;
2. Two sessions of practicals and final exams are conducted on the main campus in Dschang in March and August each year;
3. The courses are offered in English and French, the two official languages of Cameroon.

Distance Education, Faculty/Staff Training and Rural Development

The success of development programmes depends on three key factors: personnel, non-human resources and environmental conditions. Central to the environment is government *action and commitment* to people-centred and production-oriented development. Commitment is also expected to be demonstrated by an unselfish an unbiased allocation of resources for distance education and open learning programmes. Perhaps more important in this triangle of factors is the human component because even if commitment is forthcoming from the political leadership, and resources made available, a dedicated, well trained corps of professionals and paraprofessionals in needed if distance education is to bring about the desired impacts. Well trained and dedicated staff are necessary for distance education programmes in development countries because:

* distance learning tends to involve adults who have developed considerable independent thinking with

a clear idea of their goals in life;

* distance education methodology requires skills that are much different from the face-to-face situation in on-campus programmes;
* of the persistent difficulties of urban trained technicians to adapt to rural situations;
* the low level of technology, infrastructure, communication facilities and information in farming communities and structurally depressed areas preclude the use of new Information and Communication Technologies;
* an unfavourable reward system for people working in rural areas diminishes learning opportunities for many people;
* high rates of unemployment and low incomes in many African countries contribute to lower rates and levels of education;
* structural inequalities create dependencies that are incompatible with high achievement rates in education;
* the chronic problems of low educational attainment in rural schools and a corresponding low level of capacity building in African countries, itself reinforced by persistent poverty, all conspire to deny many people the opportunity to participate in making the decisions that affect their lives.

In the light of the increasing restructuring of the world economy, African countries can avoid being left behind by intensifying their efforts in the creation of knowledge societies in the 21st Century. The training and recruitment of competent personnel at all levels and in all sectors of the economy, their retention and professional development through life-long learning opportunities are necessary conditions for the survival of all nations states in this century.

As Stiglitz (1999:1) has said, "globalization is like a giant wave that can either capsize nations or carry them forward on its crest..." In its analysis of the Word Development Report 1999/2000, the World Bank (1999:1) remarks that all nations must master :

> two forces of change in the 21st century: the integration of the world economy and the increasing demand for self government which will affect responses to key issues such as poverty reduction, climate change, water scarcity.

To cope with these forces, all nations must adopt a rich menu of rules and policies that can serve as the ingredients of a comprehensive approach to participatory approaches to raising living standards (World Bank, 1999:1). Open and Distance Learning contains the ingredients for the rich menu that African countries need to fight the chronic and obstinate barriers to change: poverty, widespread ignorance, low participation of the population in making the decisions that affect their lives, and the absence of a collective conscience.

Appropriate Communication Skills

A major weakness of agricultural extension in developing countries is the lack of appropriate communication skills. Distance education can play a critical role in developing communication skills and enhancing capacity building at the grassroots (IGNOU, n.d.). New and appropriate skills, useful relationships and positive attitudes to change can be developed through learner-centered approaches that can best be promoted through open and distance learning.

The implications of these analyses are that a distance education programme in agricultural training and education as the one at the University of Dschang, needs to be well focused, well managed, well

coordinated and made responsive to the needs of learners within a broader context of a national educational policy. This also implies that university administrators will be required to shirk off old attitudes and behaviours such as proclivity to old-fashioned and out-dated methods of student recruitment, classroom instruction and student assessment. There is need in today's educator to be more dynamic, more forward-looking, and more receptive to the continuous changes in our environment.

In developing countries the government is still the largest and most influential development agency. All government policies concerning the lives and work of farmers are translated into action through bureaucracies whether these policies relate to land, dissemination of new technologies, delivery of services or the collection of taxes of various kinds.

In spite of the long experience of most governments in these activities, there are only a few instances where such efforts have really benefited the poor (Nji, 1992; 1985). Development efforts in this connection have been slowed down because education has not been given its pride of place in human resource development. And as a result of long-standing illiteracy in African countries, politicians and policy-makers continue to make decisions from the centre, in complete disregard of the needs, experiences and aspirations of the majority of the population, most of them poor. But as Tchakoa and Nji (1999) have pointed out, targeting the poor can be an effective strategy to alleviate poverty in Africa.

National efforts to train and retain distance educators can contribute toward poverty reduction and increase democratization of education in Africa. This will lead to fuller participation of the majority of the population in decision-making processes and enable the society to tap latent untapped human and natural resources.

Training is needed for rural development paraprofessionals on such topics as health, child welfare, nutrition, agricultural production, income generation, the involvement of women in development activities, gender issues, participation, and the effects of globalisation on African societies. Open learning and distance education has the promise, opportunity and potential to release the energies necessary to provide such training.

Through increased access to education and by adequately addressing the issues of relevance, accountability can be obtained from politicians and bureaucrats. In order to win the fight against corruption (Elshorst,2000) and globalization (Nji, 1998), African countries must mobilize the necessary resources, open up minds, create opportunities for dialogue and constructive criticisms and build an enabling environment for their citizens to participate in nation building. Once again the potential of open and distance learning to help African countries to face these challenges are enormous.

The distance education educators in Dschang received training in Canada and Cameroon on key areas of capacity building including course development, student recruitment, marketing, project administration and management, technical editing and the production of audio-visual materials.

One of the unique characteristics of the project is that there was never Canadian presence on the ground in Cameroon. The management was left in the hands of a project management team whose coordinator was elected by his peers and only ratified by the University administration. Canada provided financial support and technical assistance through short-term training in Canada and in Cameroon during a total of 5 short visits ranging from 2-6 weeks between 1991 and 1998.

Problems

Problems surfaced on the project ranging from institutional stone-walling, blackmail and jealousy by

peers, outright sabotage and passive resistance to collaborate on the part of some core members. Some authors did not respect deadlines; in some cases they openly attacked the project coordinator for being too meticulous and scrupulous in his management. However, along the road were roadblocks and roses, a typical blend of what characterizes humanity: conflict and consensus.

Governments that integrate both on-campus and distance education in its training programmes will contribute positively to reducing the number of illiterates in the developing world, and guarantee a more informed human resource base at the grassroots. In Cameroon for example, although the adult female literacy rate was 64.4 in 1985, it dropped to 57.4% in 1990 against a public expenditure of 7.5% of GDP in 1985 (World Bank, 1995:190). Yet, as Korten and Alfonso (1983:30) noted, education is a critical ingredient of development which in itself is a process that is highly charged with power, commitment, and leadership.

Appropriate Policies

Policies are the most visible ways by which the impact of governments is felt by the poor, particularly peasants, rural residents and those living in depressed urban areas. Unfortunately, these groups of citizens are often those by-passed by government programmes to alleviate poverty. As result of this neglect and the implementation of policies that by-pass the persons for whom they are intended, most governments are negatively evaluated by their populations. Another source of conflict between the government and the governed is tax policies that are too often not people-friendly; that are seen to be irrational and tend to negate productivity.

Not surprisingly then, it is often the tax problem that upsets even illiterate and the so-called ignorant farmers (Nji, 1981) in poor countries. During one of my research trips to a remote village in Cameroon in the heat of the democratic struggle in 1990, I asked a 50-year old farmer what kind of government he would prefer. He shot back as if he was waiting for the question: "A government that will not impose too many taxes at the same time on the same people."

Open and distance learning in developing countries are in dire and urgent need of appropriate policy instruments to reinforce and sustain current proven achievements in distance learning. Policies are needed to set up the academic equivalence of certificates and diplomas awarded to distance learners. Teachers and staff involved in course development and programme administration are often left in the cold without any written policy on how faculty time and efforts will be rewarded. These gaps need to be filled by appropriate people-friendly education policies.

The cost of distance education in developing countries is high, and access still difficult for many. The media and technology is often muffled by unnecessary bureaucratic red-tape and extreme degrees of conservatism. Some of these obstacles can be removed by granting distance learning students tax rebates on course materials and establishing preferential postal, telephone and fax tariffs for distance learners and distance education centres.

Governments in developing countries can rebuild tarnished images and reestablish much needed trust by instituting policies that will reinforce indigenous knowledge, enhance the development of local capabilities for coping with rapid social change, and create development. The best and most rewarding of such policies are those that relate to human resources development because investing in people is the best investment against irreversible trends in globalization and the best guarantor of continuity for any human society.

The effectiveness of public policies depends on the degree to which they are compatible with the culture

and goals of the persons for whom the policies have been designed. In the context of this paper, distance education learners are the beneficiaries or receivers of distance education policies. They should constitute the primary target of all distance education programmes.

The second group are the policy-makers or those we might want to consider as the providers or facilitators of an enabling policy environment for distance education to take root and thrive. What links the two groups together is a shared distance education environment characterized by an acceptable system of values representing a synergy of individual and collective value systems.

The two independent units (L and P) are expected to work together to achieve a harmonized whole. The ultimate goal of this interaction should be to achieve a system fit whereby the *values* characterized by the needs, expectations, motives and sentiments of distance education learners mesh with the goals and objectives of the policy-makers. The larger the intersection, the greater the integration and fit between the two groups.

As individuals, all distance learners have self esteem. They seek to develop and maintain an identity as well as strive for self-fulfillment. As an institution or organization, the bureaucracy which is made up of policy-makers, seeks to achieve specific goals. Synergy in the distance education environment is achieved when the two groups achieve maximum interaction and share a common system of educational values.

The effectiveness of distance education programmes ultimately affects the entire educational system as well as the other sectors of the economy such as the agricultural system. However, since distance education and open learning is only one of the methods or approaches to human development, the effectiveness of the distance education system will depend on the performance and goals of all its components within the educational environment of each society. This is further determined by the importance attached to distance education as well as the flexibility with which Open and Distance Learning programmes are conceived and administered in different environments.

Therefore, there is need for careful planning and curriculum development. Also of importance is the need to cultivate a culture of individual and collective accountability on the part of all the actors, and responsiveness on the part of the institutions responsible for Open Learning and Distance Education.

Finally, mechanisms must be built into the system of distance education so that the needs and aspirations of learners are recognized; the learners motivated and rewarded for sustainable personal and social development. Viewed in the same way as educational extension, the sustainability of distance education programmes will be determined by the same factors that make a good agricultural extension programme tick: adaptability, quality, access, flexibility and relevance (Peabody, 1968; Nji, 1998b).

Conclusion

Distance education should not be seen as a panacea for solving the educational needs of a nation in short supply of resources. Rather, it should be seen as a window of opportunity for a nation to maximize the use of limited physical, financial and human resources in its efforts to increase educational access while guaranteeing the quality.

In poor nations, distance education is a viable alternative mode of educational delivery for adult learners, farmers, school drop-outs and people with special needs and problems. Distance education can reinforce the indigenous knowledge systems of peasants in developing countries, and help governments to remove the barriers to progress that keep poor people poor: the burden and barriers imposed by ignorance, disease, managerial incompetence, and lack of access to new technologies.

The high cost of campus-based instruction, the stress created by inappropriate and inadequate infrastructure in the schools, the constraints of work and family all preclude the ability of individuals to seek further education within formal residential-type instruction systems.

Traditional methods of formal education have been less successful in minimizing the risk factor in peasant agriculture for instance and less effective in creating a well informed environment for the adoption of new technologies. Distance education offers the potential and opportunity for nations and individuals to correct these inequities and brighten the future of adult learners, particularly the poor and persons living and working in areas of limited opportunity structure.

ODL methodology takes into consideration critical aspects of culture that are indispensable for human progress such as family life, farming systems, cultural values and believes. Distance Learning enables development agencies to build upon existing institutions and minimize wastes of resources.

In Africa, the methodology can build upon the traditional solidarity of peasant societies, their aspirations and their vision of the world as often translated in the oral traditions of communities left behind in the process of rapid social change. Also, ODL, rather than call for new investments in infrastructure, tends to maximize the use of existing resources.

Most often, difficulty lies in where and how to start a distance education programme. With the advent of modern Communication and Information Technologies the decisions of late starters in distance education have been greatly facilitated as institutions can be contacted and information shared more easily and at a much cheaper cost than a couple of decades ago.

Perhaps the greatest ingredients needed for late adopters of the distance education technology are *courage, determination* and above all a *vision* of the future within the framework of the overall educational objectives and development goals of each nation. The recent behaviours of the new leaders in Cameroon's higher education system exemplify this awareness and consciousness of the necessity to adopt visionary and strategic planning in higher education (Sanyal,1999).

Distance Education holds Africa's hope as a viable mechanism to build knowledge societies, enhance democracy, encourage good governance, promote citizen participation in public activities, build a culture of civic responsibility and prepare the continent for the formidable challenges of the 21st century.

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Chapter 8

THE STATE OF ADULT LITERACY IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

Ikete E. Belotsi and Muntumosi Atukimba

Introduction

Adult literacy is one of the most important aspects in the perspective of Education For All. Now viewed as a process enabling each individual to acquire the basic knowledge and capabilities which are required in a changing world[1], it does constitute an essential factor of human development and struggle against poverty, particularly in the developing countries.

It is for this important reason, that programmes for the elimination of adult illiteracy have been developed and the intensification of such programmes is continuously being encouraged. However, the relating policies and strategies vary from one region or one country to another depending on the political, sociological, cultural and economical context. The same thing is valid for the results which were achieved.

Central Africa also has its own particular experience with regard to adult literacy. The purpose of this paper is to give an idea of this, from the experience of one of the countries of this sub-region, namely the Democratic Republic of Congo.

The choice of this country is mainly due to the availability of the required documentation and to the origin of the authors. Furthermore, the Democratic Republic of Congo does constitute a significant sample of this part of Africa. With its 2,345,409 square kilometers of land surface and a population of 52 million, this country covers an important portion of the sub-region and provides relevant data which can make it possible to appreciate the situation. All the more so, since the country is a mixture of peoples, cultures and languages which can also be found in the neighbouring countries. Moreover, the Democratic Republic of Congo has the same colonial experience with two other countries in the region and is a French-speaking country are as most of the countries in Central Africa.

Differences are not to be overlooked and certain significant experiences are not to be put aside. Thus, it must first be mentioned that literacy rate varys from one country to another. Furthermore, there are countries in the sub-region where the absolute number of illiterate men and women has decreased between 1980 and 1995, and other countries where the number of illiterate men has gone down while the number of illiterate women has increased.[2]

Among the significant experiences to mention, one could identify the 1965 experience in the Republic of Congo (Brazzaville) which was granted three NADEJDA KROUPSKAIA honour prizes. (in 1970, 1975 and 1981)[3] or another experience in Burundi in the YAGA MUKAMA[4]centers.

The following sections of this paper give some information on the history of adult literacy in the DRC. The policies which were followed and the strategies that were applied are examined before the results reached and the future prospects are provided.

Historical perspective

The history of literacy in general and Adult literacy in the DRC in particular actually started with the European penetration in this part of the continent, since the local people did not develop their own form

of scripts. Furthermore, contacts with the Arabs were rather characterised by painful episodes due to the slave trade. The Catholic and Protestant missionaries were the first to take the initiative to teach the adults how to read and write so that their followers could read and understand the biblical teachings[5]. Similar initiatives were also taken separately by some colonisers for the benefit of the local employees.

The World Conference on Literacy held in Teheran in 1965 stimulated the interest of officials in Adult Literacy. It was in this context that, upon the initiative of the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of National Education, the idea was launched to set up a directorate of Adult Literacy.

In 1967 the *"Manifeste de la N'Sele"*, (N'Sele proclamation) and the popular movement of the Revolution) a political orientation document of *the " Mouvement Populaire de la Révolution"* (a political party which later became a State-Party) proclaimed the will of the authorities to promote after -school and out-of-school activities in order to fight illiteracy. This proclamation reinforced the interest in adult literacy and led the Government to intervene in the field.

A literacy programme was then started from 1967 to 1971 with the support of UNESCO and a Directorate of Literacy and Education was founded in 1968 within the Ministry of National Education.

The first centres were opened in 1970 and 1971. In 1972, the Directorate of Literacy was transferred to the Ministry of Social Welfare where it took the name of "Directorate of Education techniques". The literacy activities were incorporated in the Social Promotion Centres and inserted in the *"Cellule d'Apprentissage Professionnel et d'Alphabétisation"* (cell of professional learning and literacy) abbreviated " AAP ".

When in 1975, the responsibilities of the Ministry of Social Welfare were transferred to a foundation called "Œuvres Mama Mobutu",(works of Mama Mobutu), the activities of adult literacy had no more supervision, and the employees who were assigned to this state service were placed under the direct supervision of the Department of Public Administration (Public Administration Permanent Commission).

The activities pertaining to adult literacy continued in the public sector but without enthusiasm as in the beginning. Nevertheless, the support of the private sector came particularly from the Protestant Churches of Congo such as the Kimbanguist Church.

In 1988/89, the DRC took part in the Regional Programme for the Elimination of Illiteracy in Africa, which was initiated by UNESCO in keeping with recommendation number 2 of the Conference of Ministers of Education and those responsible for Economic Planning of African member States held in Harare, Zimbabwe in 1982. In this context, the DRC hosted a support mission from the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Dakar (BREDA) and organized several activities in relation to the programme.

The participation of the country in this programme resulted in the following achievements

a) The creation of a National Committee for the struggle against Illiteracy in Congo (CONALACO) which is a structure for consultation between the Adult Literacy officials and the officials of Primary Education;
b) The publication of an information document entitled *"Lutte Contre l'Analphabétisme au Zaïre d'ici à l'An 2000"* (Struggle against illiteracy in Zaïre from now to the year 2000);
c) The preparation of an integrated draft plan for the elimination of illiteracy;
d) The elaboration of a national document for an integrated plan for the elimination of illiteracy;
e) The holding of a national information and sensitization seminar on the integrated plan for the

elimination of illiteracy. This seminar which was held in Kinshasa from 18 to 22 September 1989 was attended by 70 central and regional officials involved in Adult Literacy and Primary Education.

In accordance with the philosophy of this programme, the DRC opted for a strategy to eliminate illiteracy by associating primary education (to stop the plague from the source) with Adult literacy.

The plan mainly foresaw the following objectives:

a) Put in place the planning and organizational structures of the primary education activities in association with the Adult literacy activities;
b) set up structures for a wider and more efficient mobilization of the human, material and financial resources;
c) involve all the active forces of the country in this programme;
d) set up a flexible but efficient network for information and exchange of experiences between the public and private partners;
e) take concrete measures for sending the children to school and for eliminating illiteracy among the adults;
f) allow the optimum utilization of the available formal and informal resources and infrastructure.

Unfortunately, this plan did not produce the expected result. This situation could be explained by a few factors. First, the misunderstanding which arose when the programme was launched and which persisted during the implementation of the programme, regarding the relationship to be established between adult literacy and primary school attendance. This misunderstanding resulted in a latent but persisting conflict between the officials of the two ministries concerned. Then, the officials who launched the programme were changed. The new officials were not able to ensure its continuity. Finally, because of the situation which prevailed in the country after 1990 due to the launching of the democratization process, the institutional framework was disturbed several times.

It must be mentioned that the activities of adult literacy received the support of several foreign partners. As mentioned above, the first partner was UNESCO. Then in 1973 came the support of the French cooperation who trained the instructors. From 1974 to 1984, the German Government intervened through the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV). Since then, international cooperation was effected only occasionally until structural cooperation was suppressed in the nineties.

It is also worth mentioning that in 1996, the Democratic Republic of the Congo was granted the UNESCO international prize for literacy which was offered by King SEYONG. The prize was granted to the DIBWA DIA DITUMBA UNESCO Club of Kinshasa /Kingasani.

POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

Targets and objectives

The attention given to adult literacy in the Democratic Republic of Congo is a result of preoccupations which are shared today by all nations, now viewing the human resources as a determining factor in the development process and therefore for the social and economic progress of a nation.

Consequently, the law in Congo stipulates that the state has the obligation to allow every citizen to exercise his right to education[6]. In a country where the education system does not yet allow every child to have access to schooling nor to acquire durable literacy, it is the duty of the state and for society to consider ways and means to provide education to those who become adults who have not the chance to receive

elementary education.

It is in this context that the efforts to organise out-of-school education activities such as adult literacy are to be understood. Furthermore, one of the options of the education policy in this country is that going to school should not be the only way to develop people in society.[7]

However, in this context of non-formal education, where the guiding principles are determined in Articles 39 and 40 of the master plan on national education, adult literacy is viewed more as a sort of " promotional social assistance" as opposed to " passive social assistance" intended for the poor[8].

Under this approach, the objective of adult literacy, with regard to quantity, is to reach all those who did not manage to attend school as well as those who attended school but failed to master the essential mechanisms of reading, writing and calculating. In connection with the world Summit for Children held in 1990, the objective aimed at was to reduce the illiteracy rate from 28 to 14% for men and from 39 to 18% for women.

As far as quality is concerned, it is a matter of functional literacy, to take into account the different basic education objectives and to allow the social promotion of individuals. It is for this reason that a link is usually established with activities relating to health, nutrition, community development, civic and political education and to the fight against poverty.

Organisational scope

Viewed as a form of social assistance, Adult Literacy in the DRC is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Welfare and Family. It is this ministry which determines the policy to be followed and makes the practical arrangements for implementing such policy. As mentioned above, it is under this ministry that the Directorate of Adult Literacy is operating.

However, educational activity requires the particiption of different partners. In fact, the law provides that it is the responsibility of the state and the responsibility of individuals and legal entities to create the required conditions and structures which should guarantee the civic and moral development of citizens as well as the development of their intellectual, physical and professional abilities and capabilities[9].

Thus, the Ministry of Social Welfare works with several partners. The most active of such partners are particularly the Protestant and Limbanguist churches, the non- governmental organizations dealing with development as well as the UNESCO clubs and associations.

Those organizations take the initiative to create literacy centres and seek the authorization and approval of the ministry concerned. The ministry also has the power to inspect and ensure that the activities are well carried out. To be approved, such centres must have trained instructors, adequate didactic materials, appropriate support and a quiet and well ventilated working place.

It is also on account of the multiplicity of partners that the national Committee for the struggle against illiteracy - which was referred to earlier, was created.

The Directorate of Adult Literacy comprises of a few divisions and services especially in charge of literacy matters such as the elaboration, experimentation and teaching of related techniques and collection of statistics.

The Directorate also comprises of an administrative unit in charge of out-of-school radio and television

programmes and other audio-visual means; another unit is responsible for training and retraining of the instructors. There is even a division in charge of post-literacy services.

In each province, the service is represented by an Adult Literacy Bureau reporting to the Regional Division of Social Welfare. In every district, there is also a supervisor for the Adult literacy centres.

Programmes, Didactic Materials and Methods

Formally, the elaboration of programmes and literacy materials is the responsibility of the Directorate of Adult Literacy of the Ministry of Social Welfare and Family. However, in reality many of the initiatives come from private partners.

The programme is in relation to the general orientation defined above, which consists in providing functional literacy in order to satisfy the basic education needs of the students. It is on this basis that booklets are designed in such a way as to include the learning of how to read and acquire specific knowledge concerning life situations such as health, hygiene, family planning, environment, poverty, democracy, etc...

The education strategies used are inspired from the psycho-social method of Paulo Freire. The approach involves four stages :

a. The selection of candidates by using the knowledge of pre-test;
b. The sensitization of the learners through past experiences;
c. Dialogue in order to awaken the participants and formulate the development problems;
d. The practicing of what was learnt during the animation courses.

The booklets used are in general written in the four national languages: Lingala, Kikongo, tshiluba and Swahili taking into account the linguistic area of the students.

However, there exist literacy materials in widely-spoken local languages such as Otetela, Lomongo. Such initiatives are mostly taken up by private partners, particularly the churches.

Financing

The literacy activities are financed by the state, private organizations, international co-operation and by the beneficiaries. The state intervention is the contribution to the operational budget of the Directorate of Adult Literacy. From 1983 to 1987, this budget increased by 1.1%, which represents 0.002% of the national budget. Considering the fact that this budget is not allocated to the activities of the different literacy centres but rather to the operation of the central literacy Directorate, one can realize the funding difficulties for adult literacy in the DRC.

Nevertheless, it must be noted that the instructors working in the public literacy centres are remunerated by the state according to the salary scale for Public Administration.

The data for private funding are not available neither from the religious organizations, the NGO's, the international cooperation nor from the beneficiairies. However, it must be noted that every year the particpation fees to be paid by the students are determined by the state taking into account the cost of living.

ACHIEVEMENTS

1. Staffing

A relatively large number of instructors are employed for the activities of adult literacy. The first public

training centres in 1970 and 1971 used about 1.550 instructors.[10] In 1987, there were 6.176 instructors in the public sector, while the Protestant Church had 2646 and the Kimbanguist Church had 330[11].

In the public sector, the number of instructors decreased significantly between 1982 and 1990 to reach 1950. Such manpower reduction was due to the massive departure of a great number of instructors who went to look for better and well-remunerated jobs.

Such was the case of about 2500 instructors who were trained with the assistance of the IIZ/DVV. Most of these instructors left the sector when it was placed under Public Administration.

Being qualified for primary education, they preferred to join the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in order to preserve their seniority and salary advantages. As a matter of fact, teachers in this sector get salary increase every three years if their annual evaluation is satisfactory.

2. Number of literacy centres

The statistics concerning the number of Adult literacy centres in the DRC are not fully available, because many such initiatives undertaken by the private sector are not communicated to the Adult Literacy Directorate.

However, it is known that in the public sector, the number of such centres has grown rapidly. From 44 in 1970, it went up to 272 in 1980[12]. According to the statistics collected in 1988 by a UNESCO support mission to BREDA (Regional office of Education in Africa based in Dakar) in relation with the Regional Programme for the elimination of illiteracy in Africa, there were 276 centres operating in the social promotion centres at that time. Presently, there are 350 social promotion centres.

It must be noted that, generally speaking, each social promotion centre includes an Adult Literacy cell. However, due to the lack of instructors and materials some centres cannot organize an Adult Literacy cell. The dissemination of the social promotion centres per province is shown in the table 1 below.

Table 1: **Social promotion centres per Province.**

Province	Number of centres	Percentage (%)
Bandundu	41	11.7
Bas-Congo	21	6
Equator	33	9.4
Eastern Province	49	14
Eastern Kasai	16	4.5
Western Kasai	27	7.5
Katanga	28	8
Kinshasa	24	6.4
Maniema	27	7.5
North Kivu	32	16.5
South Kivu	48	13.7
TOTAL	350	100

Source : Ministry of Social Welfare and Family
N.B: The percentage is calculated by the authors.

One can notice that the Eastern Province has 49 centres (14%) while South-Kivu has 48 (13.7%). The three provinces of the former Kivu Province (Maniema, North Kivu and South Kivu) have 112 centres in total out of the 350 centres i.e. 32.3%. The former Kivu Province is in fact the most populated province with an estimated population of about 9,010.000 representing 17% of the estimated total population of the country of 52,099,000. However, the difference with the Katanga province is quite big. The estimated population of the Katanga province is 7,390,000 (14%); yet there are only 28 centres in the province. This clearly shows the necessity to take into account the population number when opening Adult literacy centres in the provinces.

This situation could even appear to be more critical, if we look at it from inside each province. In fact, most of the centres are located in the capital cities of the provinces and in the main provincial towns. In general, there are no Adult Literacy centres in the remote areas.

Concerning the private sector, statitics show that the number of centres organized by the Protestant Church in Congo has increased from 424 in 1983/84 to 1240 in 1987/88[13]. As for the Kimbanguist Church, there were 56 centers in 1972. The data on the recent situation and the dissemination of private centers throughout the provinces could not be obtained. The same situation is true with regard to the number of centres organized by the Catholic Church.

It must be noted that, for the city of Kinshasa, a study undertaken in 1996 showed that there were 385 Non-formal Adult education and training establishments including 128 adult literacy cells. The following table shows their distribution per legal status.

Table 2: **Adult Education Establishments in Kinshasa City by 1996**

Public sector		Private sector				TOTAL
Ministry of Social Welfare	Other Ministries	Catholic Church	Protestant Church	Other Churches	Independent	
25	15	63	44	20	218	385

3. Number of neoliterates

From 1970 to 1973, 15900 persons[14] were trained in the Public sector. In 1987, 233.869 people were trained in the public centres. In 1987/1988, there were 52000 people who were attending the literacy centres of the Protestant church while the Limbanguist church reported to have trained 8550 adults between 1972 and 1988.

In 1990, there were more than 20880 people in the public sector literacy cells. If we take into account the estimated number of illiterate people in the country, these figures are quite low. In fact, during this period, there were about 7 million illiterates.

4. Appraisal of progress achieved

In 1962, the percentage of illiterate people of 15 years plus in the DRC was estimated by UNESCO to be 51% for men, 86% for women and 68.7% for both sexes[15]. In 1984, the estimated rate for both sexes was 42,8%. It was 28,2% in 1990 and has increased to 32,7% in 1995[16]. Thus, the situation seems to have worsened between 1990 and 1995. The generalized crisis which the country and particularly the Education sector is experiencing could explain such a situation. Thus, the objectives retained in 1990 could not be attained. The illiteracy rate per province and per sex in 1995 is shown in table 3 below :

Table 3: **Illiteracy rate per Province by gender in percentage (%)**

Province	Males	Females	Total
Kinshasa	3.2	10.8	7.4
Bas-Congo	9.5	31	20.9
Bandundu	14.6	43.9	30.4
Equator	24.6	43.5	44.8
Easter Province	29.1	57.9	44.9
Kivu*	26.7	65.3	47.1
Katanga	12.4	44.6	29.5
The Kasais	15.5	44.8	31.1
DRC	17.5	45.9	32

Including Maniema, South Kivu and North Kivu
Source : National Inquiry, 1995.

According to the above table, the lowest illiteracy rate is the rate for men in Kinshasa (3.2%) while the highest rate is the rate for women in both Kivu (65.8%). When we look at both sexes combined, the lowest rate is still in Kinshasa (7.4%), while the highest rate is always in both Kivu (47.1%). But the highest illiteracy rate for men is in the Eastern Province (29.1%). Generally speaking, comparison between different areas shows that the majority of illiterate people are in the rural areas. Compared to the other countries in the Central Africa Sub-region, the DRC is relatively in a better position if we consider the number of literate adults as shown in table 4 below.

Table 4: **Trends of the development of adult literacy in the Central African countries for 1990 and 1995 by gender in percentage (%).**

Country	1990			1995		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
DRC	72	84	61	78	87	68
Central Africa Rep	38	52	25	60	68	52
Chad	30	42	18	49	62	36
Cameroon	54	66	43	64	75	52
Congo Brazza	57	70	44	75	83	67
Gabon	61	89	49	64	74	53
Equatorial Guinea	50	64	37	79	90	68

Source : DAE (1995)

However, one could not take the risk to explain the relative advantage of the DRC by the importance of its adult literacy programmes. The situation described above does not allow such a statement. This advantage could undoubtedly result from the development of its primary education. As a matter of fact, at independence the DRC had a percentage of children attending primary school of about 53%. And in spite of the regression observed during these last years, this percentage is still acceptable.

Problems and challenges

The development of Adult literacy in the DRC is faced with various problems and challenges, the most important of which are the following:

1. Institutional problems

The institutional capacity of the services in charge of adult literacy is affected by the same kind of difficulties to which all the public services are confronted. Such difficulties include the insufficiency of the resources which are put at their disposal for operations, the quality of the staff and the remuneration policy applied. The difficulities also involve the institutional relations partciularly the coordination of activities undertaken by different partners in the system. As a matter of fact, in general, the service in charge of co-ordinating the literacy activities in the country does not have full control of the situation, due to the lack of means.

Furthermore, the absence of an adequate collaboration framework between this public entity and the services of the Ministry of Education is a serious disadvantage when the fundamental issues of the country's education are being elaborated.

2. Strategic Problems

Strategic problems are problems relating to the development planning of the activities to eliminate illiteracy. On the one hand, data concerning the situation of illiteracy in the country are not available because they are not regularly collected. On the other hand, there is no formal National Plan adopted by the Government in this regard. The one that was elaborated in 1989 was only a draft.

It is important here to underline that in all the major planning document of the country - from the first 1986-1990 five-year-plan to the 1999-2001 three-year minimum plan - there is no specific reference to adult literacy.

The fact that this aspect is not taken into account in the development plans would certainly explain why the incorporation of the adult literacy activities in any development plan has remained to date a mere wish, even though the idea was expressed several times.

3. Funding problems

Even when an important portion of the state budget was allocated to education, the portion for adult literacy was ridiculous. Now that the portion allocated to other entities of the education sector has decreased significantly, the budget for adult literacy has become almost non-existent.

The alternative is to request a financial contribution from the learners. In such a context of poverty as is the case in the DRC, such an alternative could only reduce the number of people participating in the activities.

4. Pedagogical problems

Pedagogical problems are first in relation to the qualification of the instructors. The training which most of them have received is insufficient with regard to the current requirements of the job.

In addition, the quality of the didactic material is not reassuring. Some of the booklets are designed by incompetent people. As a result, their presentation and their contents are neither attractive nor pertinent. Finally, the methods used are not always the recommended ones.

PROSPECTS

Adult Literacy is a field to be reinforced in the DRC. In fact, as shown by the above mentioned figures, the struggle for the elimination of illiteracy has to be intensified. Otherwise, the objective to eliminate this plague in the country will become more and more distant.

This fear is justified by many factors. In fact, the rough rate of school attendance which was 94% in the eighties dropped to 72,30% in 1992-1993. And it is still dropping towards 50%. Moreover in 1995, there were at least 28.6% of children between 6 and 14 years old who did not attend primary school. The number of children deserting school sometimes represent more than 10%, and it is being noted that an important number of children completing grade 5 at primary school do not know how to read and write properly. Which means there is a risk for such children to revert back into illiteracy. Furthermore, the war today is affecting more than half of the country, and this does not allow a normal handling of the education activities.

It would be convenient to take into account the particular situation caused by the war and encourage emergency education initiatives before the conclusion of the peace process.

The efforts to be made must be in the reinforcement of the national capacities in the field of adult literacy, allowing a better coordination and planning of the activities, and finally improving the training materials.

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to give a view of what is happening in the field of adult literacy in Central Africa through the case study on the DRC, one of the countries in the sub-region.

It appears that adult literacy is organized in the country. Promising at the beginning, it is however now suffering from the same shortcomings as the whole education system in the country. The rate of school attendance is satisfactory but in regression since 1990. It could be perceived that such a regression could worsen if we consider the situation now prevailing in primary education during this war in DRC.

It is recommended that a strong action should be undertaken in order to revitalize the sector so that it can meet the challenges that are lying ahead.

There are a few conclusions arising from this situation. Firstly, the importance of political support for developing adult literacy activities and education in general. It is in fact due to political impetus that the Adult Literacy programmes were intensified in the DRC. When such impulse became weak, the activities lost their momentum, in spite of the existence of valuable private initiatives.

Secondly, institutional stability is another factor to be taken into account. Frequent changes of officials affect the continuity and durability of the initiatives.

Thirdly, the strength of the adult literacy programmes also depends on the level of coordination of the activities undertaken in the public and private sectors. Such coordination is also needed in other entities of the education sector. Otherwise, adult literacy will remain a marginal activity. In this regard, the question must be raised to know if adult literacy should continue to be viewed as a sort of "social assistance" or as a real and full human resources development activity.

Fourthly, it is important to clearly emphasize the preoccupation in relation to adult literacy in the development plans of the country. In this manner, the activity will receive full attention during the elaboration of the budgets and will be duly incorporated in the different development projects initiated by the country.

Fifthly, the remuneration policy for the instructors should also deserve a particular attention. Taking into account the example of the DRC, it would be good for such policy to be in line with the general policy applied in the whole education sector.

Sixthly, the development of adult literacy programmes should take into account the population rate of the different areas and the development level of the primary school attendance. Attention must also be drawn to the physical, cultural and economic accessibility of the learners. Therefore, adult literacy must be taken into account when elaborating the educational map of the country.

Notes

[1] La Déclaration de Hambourg sur l'Education des Adultes, 1997

[2] UNESCO, Développement de l'Education en Afrique, Etude statistique, MINEDAF VII, Durban, 1998, p. 15-16.

[3] Aimé CHIDAS, " De l'alphabétistion de masse à l'alphabétisation fonctionnelle ; le cas congolais" dans EDUCAFRICA No 9,juin, p.150.

[4] Déogratias NDARSHANZE, "La contribution de l'enseignement de base à l'éducation formelle et unonculturelle au Burundi " dans Le Formel et le non-formel dans l'éducation de masse. Agence de coopération culturelle et technique, colletion Alpha, 1985,p.18.

[5] National Report of the Republic of Zaire at the Regional conference on Politics and cooperation in the field of Education in Africa, Harare, 1981, p4-8.

[6] Cfr. Article 2 de la loi-cadre no 86/005 du 22/9/86 de l'Enseignement National.

[7] Discours du chef de l'Etat du 30 Novembre 1973. Voir aussi les orientations fondamentales définies par les Etats Généraux de l'Education, 1996

[8] Ministère des Affaires Sociales et Famille, Vice Ministre, Exposé de politique générale sur l'éducation non B formelle et l'alphabétisation, Kinshasa, 1999.p.

[9] cfr. Articles 4 of the legal framework of the National Education

[10] République du Zaire, Etude sectorielle de l'Education, Vol.I, UNESCO, Paris 1976, P20.

[11] Comité de lutte contre l'analphabétisme au Zaïre, Esquisse du Plan d'élimination de l'analphabétisme au Zaïre, Kinshasa, inedit, 1989, P. 8.

[12] Notons que dans l'Esquisse du Plan cité ci-haut,on renseignait 1568 centres officiels.

[13] République du Zaïre, Compte rendu des travaux du Comiité adhoc constitué lors de la Mission d'appui au lancement de la prépaaration du Plan intégré d'élimination de l'analphabétisme, inédit Kinshasa, 1988; P. 11-12

[14] République du Zaire, Etude sectorielle, o.cit p.20.

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Chapter 9

RESEARCH PRIORITIES IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN KENYA

Florida A.Karani

Introduction

Research in adult education, as in other disciplines, is expected to extend the frontiers of knowledge by finding meaningful answers to problems and by developing new or improved processes and products. Research may have other incidental purposes as well. In this chapter, attention is focused on research priorities in adult and continuing education in Kenya.

Definition and objectives

Adult education signifies any form of learning undertaken by men and women who no longer go to school on full a time basis. It is based on the need for adults to improve themselves by increasing their knowledge, skills and attitudes through organised learning activities. There are several types of adult education programmes. The list includes adult literacy, occupational skills training, and community development programmes. The scope of adult education is wide as it covers all types of learning situations and activities organised at different levels for adults at different ages.

In Kenya, the objectives of adult education is specified in the Report on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond. The objectives are listed as:

* Eradication of illiteracy through basic skills training in reading, writing and numeration;
* sustaining literacy through continuing education;
* providing relevant skills and attitudes for work;
* creating self-confidence, positive attitudes and behaviour towards life and society; and
* promoting nationalism, patriotism and awareness of the role of the individual in national development.

Furthermore, the Report makes several recommendations in the area of adult and continuing education, some of which have implications for research needs and priorities in Kenya. Some of these are used as pointers to research priorities in this area.

Adult literacy

In order to understand research issues pertaining to adult literacy in Kenya, it is important to begin by asking two questions: What is the state of the art of adult literacy in Kenya and what role is research playing in its advancement?

Following the Presidential Declaration on the campaign against illiteracy launched in December 1978, the Department of Adult Education, Ministry of Education and Social Services was established. It subsequently embarked on an ambitious programme intended to eradicate adult illiteracy in Kenya by the year 1993. At the time of launching the national literacy campaign, President Daniel arap Moi stated that:

> the illiterate Kenyans have difficulty in using our currency, in following instructions for better farming or business practice, in participating fully in discussions about the country, in dealing with ballot papers during elections and in benefiting generally

> from the rapidly growing means of communication. Inability to read and write (is) regarded as a serious obstacle to Kenya's development...

Over the years, the Department of Adult Education, in conjunction with some non-governmental institutions have made some progress in the literacy programmes with an initial 3,000 full-time adult education instructors. The instructors received an in-service training programme delivered through distance mode. In addition, about 5,000 part-time volunteer instructors. However, adult illiteracy has not yet been wiped out in Kenya. In fact, enrollment declined from 415,074 in 1979 to 11,263 in 1995. The decline was attributed to several factors as reported by the Department of Adult Education. One of its report listed the following factors:

> ...inability to recruit adequate and qualified teachers (or instructors), social factors which discourage some adults from attending classes, lack of adequate classes close enough to attract adults and non-availability of appropriate reading materials in some languages.

From the above, it is evident that the programme can be enhanced through research to identify the real problems and develop improved processes and methods as well as strategies to help ensure that a effective programme planing is done.

Some studies dealing with various aspects of adult literacy in Kenya have since been done. These include, the state of the art of adult literacy in Kenya (Murai, 1985), functional literacy (Gakuru, 1976), methods and approaches in adult literacy (Murai, 1982; Kinyua, 1982). The Department of Adult Education too has some reports on some of the problems to its credit. The list include: the literacy programme scheme of work (1977), training of literacy teachers (1979), low-cost material's production (1981) and attendance survey (1980). These studies provide some information. However, there is still the need for research that proceeds as an integral part of a well-defined, long term strategy for adult literacy programme development. Perhaps, it is this need that led to the recommendation by the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond, to state that:

> It is necessary to collect up-to-date data on the population of illiterate adults to enable proper planning of the programme ... a survey be done to establish the extent of adult illiteracy in Kenya... (There is need for) total mobilisation of available resources towards a revitalised adult literacy campaign...

Further research issues in adult education beyond literacy

Adult education is often seen narrowly to be the equivalent of adult literacy. But literacy is only one aspect of adult education. Based on the wider conception of adult education, it is now pertinent to consider other research issues that merit attention.

Generally, there is evidence which suggests that research in adult education has been enhanced by the rapid growth of studies undertaken towards University level graduate adult education programmes. One major contribution of such University level programmes is that they easily provide academic leadership. An additional boost to the process of these types of researches is that more funding for it and education generally began to increase comparatively. This made financing for adult education possible (Kidd, 1988).

One would observe that adult education in Kenya has experienced some general growth. But before examining this dimension, it is important to note that there has been a drastic reduction of adult education programmes in the University of Nairobi, which is the only institution engaged in teaching and research in adult education as a discipline. This phenomenon has apparently deprived adult education of the traditional and professional home that any discipline requires in order to extend its frontiers of knowledge; to find answers to problems and to develop new and improved processes and products. In fact, the recommendation of the Presidential Working Party states that:

> ... the Institute of Adult Studies (now Co'.ege of Education and External Studies, University of Nairobi) develop high level manpower to promote and develop research in adult education....

Beyond adult literacy, adult education poses further research challenges such as: Who is the adult learner?, and what are group, community and national continuing education needs? These seem to be more urgent research issues that can be addressed at the moment. Policy research issue can also be done in several forms. In this regard, the Presidential Working Party observed that:

> The Board of Adult Education which has a central role to play in the promotion and development of adult and continuing education, should undertake its functions with vigour, determination and foresightedness. The need for the expansion, intensification of on-going programmes,... identification of new areas of development and encouragement of activities in adult education, call for concerted efforts and leadership by the Board to make them successful... (and that the University) should develop high level manpower to promote and develop research in adult education studies.

These recommendations suggest a need for research in the planning, management and practice of adult education in order to discharge the following major tasks:

* provide feedback for improvement and development;
* suggest guidelines on models of diversification and organisation of structures;
* stimulate and sustain bottom-up programmes and activities that come from learners rather than from institutions; and
* provide information- an essential element for rational planning- on learning trends and realities.

A sysnthesis of Kenya's education philosophy in the 1989-1993 Development Plan indicates that:

> the development of human resources fundamentally depends on the level of intensity of formal and informal education and training.

Human resource development theory assumes that a learning society is necessarily achieved through formal and continuing education. Likewise, Kenya expects a society which inter-alia:

* is aware of the conservation and enhancement of the environment;
* fosters attitudes for self-employment in both rural and urban areas;
* promotes and appreciates the national culture in its various dimensions;

* appreciates the need for population control and good family life; and
* can develop a sense of nationalism, patriotism, self- reliance and self-determination, the pillars upon which our national pride and dignity are built(Development Plan, 1989-1993).

These expectations can only be achieved in a setting that learning for a learning society is pursued consistently. It is evident that the idea of lifelong education requires research and development at the theoretical and practical levels, in order to establish the complementarity between formal and continuing education since both of these form the main parts of the education systems in society. The system of education:

* derive the best models for sustaining and facilitating human resource development; and
* produce individuals who are properly socialised and posses the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to enable them to participate effectively in their own personal growth and in nation building.

Adult learning can be a vehicle for economic growth by reaching out to adult learners, building a consensus on policy alternatives and assessing the benefits of education.

Material's development is a significant issue in adult education, considering the diversity of adults learning needs. Some attempts have been made by the Department of Adult Education of the Ministry of Education to produce low-cost materials in a few local languages. The University of Nairobi also produces is own study materials for its distance learning programmes, although a comprehensive long-term programme for the development of materials in the discipline, for either study, enrichment or leisure is still lacking. On this issue, the Presidential Working Party states that:

> The Department of Adult Education should also direct its efforts towards the preparation and provision of reading materials and functional programmes for post-literacy education (and) the development of reading materials in the various ethnic languages.

In the author's view, there is the need for long term studies in materials development for continuing education in order to provide the needed guidelines on content types, levels of difficulty, relevance and language. Let me now focus on the research methodology.

Research methodology

Like all discipline research in adult education has at its disposal a cross-section of research methodologies that may be deployed in undertaking various studies. These include the laboratory, the quasi-experimental, ex post facto, historical, longitudinal, case study, action, evaluation and psycho-social research types. But since the 1970s, there is a predominant view that only the laboratory methods used in the sciences is a valid and true methodology of doing research. This has significant influence on educational research, including adult education.

Research in adult education strives for the development of humanity and the individual. It seeks to achieve social improvement of conditions and people. In response to this need, there have emerged research processes and methodologies that seek to achieve this goal by involving the subjects of research, that is, the people affected by the research outcomes- as participants in identifying the research problems. They are also involved in obtaining the research data and analysing the outcome. These processes are considered

crude and have attracted sharp reaction and outright rejection on the grounds that they lack the rigid scientific approach and discipline.

The psycho-social research method which is used widely to conduct studies in adult education is a participatory method conceived by Paulo Freire. Freire's ideas have had far-reaching influence on the thought and practice of adult education all over the world. Freire sees the method as a conscientization process which he describes as:

> the process in which men, not as recipients but as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness, both of the socio-cultural reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality (Freire, 1970: 56).

In this model, the people being studied are both subjects and objects. It aims to ensure that subjects being studies are active participants rather than mere objects. In an address at the Institute of Adult Studies, University of Dar es Salam in July 1972, Freire presented the following as possible steps in such a participatory research method:

* The research team should acquaint itself with all previous research findings in the area.
* The team should delimit the area of action geographically.
* The team should identify official and popular institutions in the area selected and should talk to the leaders within those institutions.
* The team should tell these leaders that they have come to discuss the possibility of all people in that community holding discussions and working together.
* If leaders agree, the research team should hold meetings with both the leaders of various institutions and the people who are associated in some way with the institutions.
* The research team should discuss with the community arrangements for meetings wherein groups of, say 30 people could come together regularly for discussions. Such meetings should seek to involve all the members of the community. The main purpose of the interaction is to get a deep insight into the community's ways of life.
* Specialists such as sociologists, psychologists, educators and linguists should at this stage join the research team and visit each group. Records of discussions should be taken at each meeting. The people should be encouraged to participate actively in the discussion. One of the members should chair the meeting while the research team takes up an advisory role.
* Topics of discussion may include education, industry, development, among others, in the context of prevailing realities.
* While the groups have exhaustively discussed their topics, they should submit their findings a plenary session. The reporters should ideally be the people from the community. Each group report should be discussed collectively.
* The research team should then make a critical study of the people's discourse. This study should be interdisciplinary. The various levels at which people perceive reality must be determined and their many implications must be studied in the presence of the people.
* The research team, together with the people, should now draft a proposal for subsequent action.

In Kenya and elsewhere, several studies have been conducted using participatory methods. Of particular interest are the studies on literacy and development conducted by various Diploma in Adult Education students of the then Institute of Adult Studies (now the College of Education and External Studies) of the University of Nairobi. These studies were in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Diploma.

These studies were not only innovative, but they contributed to significant social improvement of development practices. For example, the study by P.Mailu on the Community Approach to Literacy and Community Development at Kibera Area in Nairobi (Mailu, 1976) and the one by M.P.Kago, on Teaching Literacy Through the Psycho-social Approach in Kikuyu Township Kigo, 1976) helped in the establishment of literacy classes and related community development work. These have continued long after the researchers have left the University. In a way, this demonstrates the power of the conscientization process to create awareness in the subjects and to get them to do something to improve their objective conditions and realities.

It is important to note the participatory mode of research enquiry is finding its way into other social science disciplines. A good example is the Department of Sociology, University of Nairobi, which carried out a project using the Participatory Action Research model. They sought to determine the efficacy of the model to spontaneous development by identifying its peculiar characteristics, advantages and problems from a development practice perspective (Mutiso, 1991).

The growing interest in this mode of research is indicative of what the method could offer or add to scholarship. Therefore, it is important that the shortcomings and basic criticisms labeled against the method over the past decades should not be brushed aside. They should be noted to help ensure that the application of the approach to adult education leads to quality research in the discipline. It should also be noted that further studies on the conscientization process are needed. Similarly, there is the need to use the corpus of research theory and practice generated in various social sciences and new technologies which can be applied to refine this mode of enquiry and develop strong theoretical foundations.

Other modes of conducting research studies have been tried over the years. One of these is the survey method which is important in investigating the field to discover current practices, trends and norms. Also, evaluation studies have used external and internal evidence to study, analyse and ascertain the value and amount of the object of study. These types of studies have contributed to the advancement of knowledge in the discipline. However, there has been a tendency to look at problems, such as women issues, literacy, the curriculum, and other vital concerns, in isolation from the existing social realities. This needs to be improved upon in Kenya and in other parts of Africa as we tap the riches of adult and continuing education to develop the numerous manifest and latent potentialities of the continent.

Conclusion

Despite the fact that adult and continuing education cuts across many disciplines, research results tend to be maintained as a private or institutional preserve as they do not find their way to where millions of readers can share, benefit and learn about the situation. It is significant to recognise that adult education is not a neutral entity and activity. What is required is interaction in research for the development of a mechanism of monitoring of all disciplines and research that offer creative insights into adult education. This will enhance the work towards the refinement of research structures, procedures and techniques. Therefore, there will be the need for an adult education research language of retrieval.

Qualitative kinds of research are required in the field of adult education in order to enhance the and facilitate the development of conceptual, theoretical and philosophical foundations of the discipline. Research is expected to help solve problems within the system in order to improve it. This calls for improved communication between researchers and practitioners. Practitioners need to become competent in the language and application of research results within development work contexts so as to solve problems in the entire system. It is evident that there is, for now, a limited application of various methods of doing adult education research. We need to venture into different modes of enquiry which use more rigorous data collection and anlyses procedures, although these efforts will need to be backed up with

additional resources financial support from all and sundry. These are the factors that will influence research priorities in adult and continuing education in Kenya and in Africa in order to help make the 21st century a millennium for Africa's development.

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Chapter 10

THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN LESOTHO

Lephoto H. Manthoto
Dele Braimoh
A. Adeola

Introduction

This chapter provides an account of the state of adult and continuing education in Lesotho. In particular, a number of key organisations that play roles in adult and continuing education professional development are discussed. Some of the achievements as well as the challenges that face this field are examined. However, the discussion is preceded by a background information on Lesotho.

Background on Lesotho

Lesotho, popularly known as the 'Mountain Kingdom' attained independence from the United Kingdom in 1966. The total population of Lesotho in 1998 was estimated at 2.05 million. Lesotho is mostly rural with only 18% of the population living in the urban areas. Historically, Lesotho has been known as a labour reserve of South Africa, with majority of able-bodied men working in the South African mines. This has historically provided remittances, which contributed to a large proportion of the Lesotho budget. However, Lesotho has experienced a downward swing in the number of migrant labour to the South African mines. While in 1990, the number of migrants stood at approximately 127,000, in 1998 the figure had significantly dropped to 76,000 and the downward trend still continues (Min. of Dev. Planning, 1998).

The population of Lesotho was reported to increase at the rate of 2%, with the crude birth rate of 32 per thousand and death rate at approximately 12 per thousand. This was the trend in 1998. However, with the havoc of the HIV/AIDS pandemic it is envisaged that these statistics may be very different. The following table provides basic statistics relating to HIV/AIDS in Lesotho.

Table 1 : **AIDS Cases of adult living with HIV in Lesotho, 1995-1998***

S/No.	Years and number of reported cases			
1	1995	1996	1997	1998
Numbers	214, 553, 346	321,366,926	450, 376, 986	596, 191, 644

Source : Ministry of Development Planning (1998) ***Lesotho Population Data Sheet***, 1998 Roma : MDP.

* These figures are very alarming and pose a particular threat to the future of Lesotho. At the same time, HIV/AIDS poses a special challenge not only to Lesotho but to Africa as a whole.

Lesotho's literacy rate has been steadily increasing since 1976. Because of the historical as well as the social background whereby boys have to look after animals and later graduate to migrant labour, educational opportunities have favoured women more than men. As a result, literacy rate among women has always been higher. The following is the literacy picture over a period of ten years:

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Table 2 : **The adult literacy rate in Lesotho by gender for 1976, 1986 and 1996 in percentage.**

S/No.	Gender	1976	1986	1996
1	Male	48%	54%	55%
2	Female	28%	34%	38%

Source : Ministry of Development Planning (1998) ***Lesotho Population Data Sheet, 1998*** Roma : MDP.

The literacy situation in 2000 has shown an even more positive change. According to a study conducted by Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC), female literacy is reported as 63% while male literacy rate has gone up to 58%. These figures show that there has been some good progress made in as far as extending basic education is concerned. However, at the same time it is very clear that education has to be democratised to reach all and at all levels in the various development sectors.

Despite this situation, the only existing National University of Lesotho, founded in April 1945 could not adequately cope with the absorption capacity of the explosive admission demands from the products of the over 200 secondary and high schools operating in Lesotho. Although the illiteracy rate is equally high in Lesotho comparatively with her total population, the efforts to wipe out illiteracy has not yielded any impressive dividends. This is despite the UNESCO's declaration of 1990, the International Literacy Year as a commencement date for the 10 years onslaught against the global eradication of illiteracy. Akin to this, is the problem of insufficient and inadequate supply of qualified human resources to manage responsible positions in the civil service, educational institutions and the private concerns, so as to reduce high dependence on the expatriates and thus conserving foreign exchange while encouraging local capacity building (Braimoh 1998).

Adult and continuing education development

Adult and continuing education has been on the development agenda of Lesotho for some time. This has developed with the hope that this mode of education could extend educational opportunities to many of the citizens who have been by-passed by the formal education system. At the same time, adult education has also been employed as a strategy in the implementation of development projects and programmes in agriculture, health, trade and industry and education. In Lesotho therefore, just like in many other parts of the developing Africa, adult and continuing education has been seen as an invaluable weapon to fight the oppressive social ills and to promote human development.

Although adult and continuing education in Lesotho can be traced to the very beginning of this nation when Moshoeshoe I put together remnants of survivors from the ravaging wars of the 1800s, we will trace forms of more organised offerings from the time of independence. At that time most of Africa bought the idea of education as a tool for development and invested heavily in formal education. However, experience soon revealed that the road to development posed more challenges than could be met through the formal education system. Lesotho is the case in point. Some of the challenges that have faced the education system have been identified as lack of adequate teaching and learning facilities; inadequate classroom space to accommodate learners at various levels; poverty level of most parents leading to inability to pay required fees; high drop-out rate as a by-product of socio-economic factors. As a result, there was growing disappointment from the citizens and at the same time a realisation by the government and development agencies that there was need to embrace a difference educational strategy that would supplement and complement formal education. Adult and continuing education has emerged as such a strategy.

In Lesotho, adult education was at first identified with development projects or programmes and training of adults related to them. Adult education came to be known as adult literacy and also as various types of adult learning programmes that were by-products of development project in such fields as cooperatives, agriculture, health or business. Later when the Institute of Extra Mural Studies introduced the certificate and diploma programmes earned out of formal schooling system these were accepted as adult and continuing education.

This clearly indicates that adult education was to address multifarious areas of concern and also using different modes of address. Over the years, the evolution of this education strategy has been inevitable. Adult and continuing education has had to respond to national development needs and aspirations. For example, after a national educational consultation conference in 1978, a number of policy issues came up. These issues played a critical role in shaping the future of adult and continuing education. The new policy indicated that:

* sufficient numbers of individuals will be equipped with appropriate occupational, technical and managerial skills to ensure the country's socio-economic development;
* opportunities for continuing education will be provided at all levels of the education system through: non-formal programmes in literacy, numeracy and basic skills, agricultural, community development and vocational training programmes; and continuing education in industry, business, government and organisations (Lesotho Government ,1981: 5)

Rationale for adult and continuing education

We are witnessing the era of information explosion, a situation which has been made possible by the global technological advancement and this does not exonerate Lesotho, even though it is one of the smallest developing countries in Africa. Lesotho is a landlocked country surrounded by the Republic of South Africa.

The birth of the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies, as an arm of the National University of Lesotho to marry town with gown by making education accessible to the Basotho people in their natural habitats through the organisation of non-formal and continuing education programmes for people interested in obtaining university degrees, diplomas and certificates, is a testimony to the reality of explosive admission demands into Lesotho's tertiary institutions. Such educational demands are either for the purpose of economic reward and/or for the individual's professional development. This process has therefore introduced new dimensions to coping with the challenges of life but more importantly, on the mode of delivering education to the heterogeneous clientele, in the geographically dispersed areas of Lesotho.

The virtual universities are now challenging the status quo of the conventional higher educational institutions in creating accessibility of educational output using non-formal and distance education methodologies to complement and supplement, the efforts of the formal educational institutions. Continuing education according to Anyanwu et. al, (1988) fosters the provision of educational services to non-traditional students. This concept points to any extension of opportunities for reading, studying and training to young people and adults after the completion of their initial full-time programmes or subsequent to their withdrawal from such programmes as a result of many factors. Through continuing education process, most people end up not only upgrading and retraining themselves but largely acquire new knowledge and skills leading to a change of their occupational callings in the different organisations for which they work.

According to Kidd's (1962) opinion which is still relatively appropriate to the present day educational development, continuing education is not a mirage in the desert; it is equally not a dream of or a vision by

a religious prophet. Rather, it is now a commonly understood phenomenon and a generally accepted practice among unsentimental secretaries, engineers, doctors, lawyers, civil servants, bankers, educationists, policy makers and even politicians, that since life is not static but changing every day thus leading to the manufacture of new ideas, experiences and new ways of doing things, learning must continue throughout one's life. Continuing education, therefore, has come to stay as a viable programme in the whole gamut of adult education as an academic as well as a professional discipline, because education has been accepted as a life-long phenomenon, starting from cradle and perhaps transcending the grave.

Over the past twenty-five years, many reasons have been advanced by many scholars (Cervero, 1990, Hunt, 1992) for the inevitability of professionals to undergo continuing education for the sake of professional development. These reasons include information and technological explosion, changes in legislations, growing emphasis on reflective professional practice, the public's demand for competence, maintenance of standard and quality including self actualization.

Adult and continuing education programmes for professional development

Adult and continuing education has a limitless scope not only in Lesotho but presumably all over the world. This is because it caters for both the old and the young, the rich and the poor, the males and the females, the urban dwellers and the rural people, for cognitive domain as well as the psychomotor. It combines the characteristics of formal and non-formal education systems and its activities are not in any way terminal but an open-ended process that may never be completed in one's life time. This is because, no matter the age of an individual, the social status, the academic attainment or the professional competence, learning continues. We all live in a dynamic society where not only the moral, spiritual and mental development but also the experiences of yesteryears might be obsolete for one to cope with the challenges or to socialise adequately into and survive in the different environments as well as to perform effectively the tasks that one might be assigned.

There are very many reasons why continuing education programmes thrive, particularly in the developing countries of Africa. These include the following:

- It is an avenue of keeping up with the new knowledge and techniques required for performing effectively and efficiently in any chosen career through constant training and
- retraining process.
- It is a process leading to the achievement of individual self-actualisation.
- It is a source of economic reward, particularly the working adults, who after their training would pass their external examinations, thus getting promoted to higher positions in their respective offices.
- It is a means of providing necessary human resources and capacity-building process. It is on record that past beneficiaries of continuing education programmes of the Adult Education Department, University of Ibadan in Nigeria and indeed some of the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies of the National University of Lesotho climbed to the academic ranks through continuing education. They went into such programmes as clerks, typists, secretaries with the First Primary School Leaving Certificates, Modern Three or COSC failed, ultimately became Professors, Senior Lecturers, Accountants, Deans of Faculties in some Universities and banking industries in Nigeria and Lesotho respectively.
- It is a useful complementary effort to the formal school system where there are problems of insufficient, incompetent or unqualified teaching staff in some subjects, inadequate time to cover the necessary areas of the syllabi as a result of unnecessary changes in the school calendar by the government or constant closure of schools due to student unrest or political upheaval (Braimoh et al:1995).

From a practical experience of what has happened and is still happening in Lesotho, continuing education has become so popular among the old and the young, particularly among the working adults. Because of many inevitable factors, not many Basotho people have solid educational background, so majority of the people are the pushed-out or the drop-outs. The prevailing economic situation also has a lot of implications for stimulating people to go back to school to improve themselves, either to be able to change their jobs for greater economic benefit or to be able to further their studies up to the degree level.

Current status of adult and continuing education

In Lesotho, Adult and Continuing education programmes are part of non-formal education activities. According to Sets'abi (1997) there are various types of non-formal education programmes in Lesotho. Some of such programmes include community development, continuing education, functional literacy, vocational and technical programmes, agricultural and cooperative extensions, extra-mural courses, religious educational activities, and in-service on-the-job training programmes, to mention a few.

Sets'abi (1989) showed that in 1987, the estimated figure of non-formal education groups and organisations which were actively involved in accomplishing some community, social, economic and educational purposes in Lesotho, was given as 600. By 1996, the number of registered non-formal education agencies had risen to 1357. There has not been any deliberate attempt to classify the types and nature of various adult NFE agencies even for planning purposes (Set'sabi, 1997). However, Motsamai, (1998), has attempted to classify adult education organizations using the 1981 Bown and Okedara's (1981) classification into 5 major categories. These include, those dealing with basic education needs; technical-vocational training needs; socio-economic education needs; ideological-political education needs and needs for improving the quality of life. For ease of reference, each of the five categories will be discussed in an appreciable detail to indicate the type, scope, nature, objectives, clientele, achievements as well as challenges, therein such category. A few of the case studies will be discussed as examples in the next section of this chapter.

(i) Adult Education Organisations focusing on Basic Education Needs

As the name implies, adult education organisations in this category, focus on basic education needs. Their operational realm centres on literacy, computational skills as well as the provision of functional education to make recipients of such education employable. These adult education organisations are also meant to provide additional schooling to those who have been deprived of it or could not make it or dropped out of school. Examples of such organisations are Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC), a wide array of afternoon and night schools operated by private individuals after formal day schools. The Lesotho Association of Non-Formal Education is another example of vibrant literacy and basic continuing education organisation.

Night schools or evening courses are among adult education organisations that focus on the basic education and remedial needs. There are many of this kind of schools which provide remedial education to those candidates, who, for one reason or another could not complete or failed their Junior Certificate (JC) or Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) examinations. The night schools which are usually held in the evening/night are largely privately owned. While the achievements of these night schools cannot be easily quantified, they have improved the lot of many candidates who could otherwise have been rendered permanently unemployed or illiterate by assisting them to pass their JC or COSC and hence continue their studies and entering into the polytechnic, Teacher Training College or University.

(ii) Adult Education Organisations for Technical-Vocational Training Needs

Organisations in this category can be divided into two areas. There are those that focus on provision of continuing education for people who are already on the job. This is to enable them meet up with the

changing situation as well as those that focus on the provision of skills and techniques in chosen vocations, occupation or professions for people who are unemployed to enable them earn a living.

Adult Education organisations that provide continuing education through in-service training, include the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies of the National University of Lesotho, National Teacher Training College, Ministry of Education (through the inspectorate unit which holds series of workshops for headteachers). The Institute of Development Management (IDM), Lesotho Institute of Public Administration and Management (LIPAM) as well as various computer centres such as Quadrant, Square One, Makaota and others cater for civil service as well as other heterogenous clientele. Those that focus on vocational training include, Lesotho Opportunities Industrialized Centre (LOIC), Thaba-Khupa Ecumenical Farm Institute and others.

(iii) Organisations that focus on socio-economic educational needs

Organisations in this category identify and provide education that promote the socio-economic needs of the people. This is to enable them to participate fully in the running of the affair of public and private economic and social institutions at both local and national levels. Examples of such organisations are, Women's Organisations, Institute of Labour Studies (ILS), Workers' Organisations, Employers' Organisations, Cooperatives, Lesotho Cooperative College, Lesotho Work Camp Association, and Lesotho Committees. This class covers institutions that are formally organised, but at the same time includes many that are non-formal in nature. Women's organisations fall under the later category. These kind of organisations are many in Lesotho. They include an umbrella organisation — Lesotho National Council of Women (LNCW) which comprises: Lesotho Home Makers Association, Lesotho Women's Institute, Boiteko Women's Association, Housewives League, Business and Professional Women, Ikageng Women's Association, Lesotho Council of Workers' Women's section; Lesotho Alliance of Women (LAW); Hlokomela Bana Association and many others.

The Lesotho National Council of Women promotes community development in urban and rural areas, extending literacy to young women and mothers, as well as encourages people to work together to improve quality of family and village life. At the same time, Lesotho Alliance of Women urges women to use their rights and influence public to pursue the attainment of basic human rights including involvement of women in all development projects. Another women's organisation— Hlokomela Bana Association aims at protecting children from hardships and misery, by providing children with the bare necessities such as material, social and moral assistance.

Other categories are workers' organisations, which include, Lesotho Congress of Free Trade Union (LCFTU) and Lesotho Federation of Trade Unions (LFTU). These organisations serve as mouthpiece as well as training organs of their members for economic and social development. There are also employers' organisations which not only cater for the interests of the employers, but protect and further the interests of all people in organisations by regulating the relations between employers and employees, through industrial education for members. Examples of these types of organisations include, Lesotho Chamber of Commerce and Industry whose main objective is promotion and development of commerce and industry, as well as the Union of Employers in Lesotho. The final in this class covers cooperatives organisations. In Lesotho, the cooperatives organisations are categorised into credit unions, farmers societies, thrift and credit societies, poultry, multi-purpose, marketing, consumer and owners societies. The main function of the cooperatives is to provide service and education to their members and to improve the general well-being of the community.

(iv) Organisations that focus on Ideological-Political Education Needs

These organisations can be summarised as those that promote moral values, ideological and political

education. The process of educational acquisition is not limited to the four-walls of the formal educational institutions but could be imparted to and absorbed by the learners using different channels of knowledge disseminations. For example, for moral education and societal value orientation to be upheld, the churches and the traditional initiation schools are viable agents on Non-Formal and Continuing Education in Lesotho particularly for both the adults and the youth. In addition, for ideological and political education, the political parties have their own norms and beliefs which bind the operations of individual party members at the intra-party and inter-party levels, especially during their regular rallies and conventions.

Furthermore, continuing education process for political education could and has been effectively done by the media. The electronic media, particularly the radio, has an Hypodermic Needle Effect (HNE) on the listeners with regard to any sensitive messages carried on the radio. Therefore, to create awareness, mobilise for change or manufacture new knowledge for the good the society, the media can embark on consistent moulding of the conscience of the electorates in an unbiased basis. This however, depends on how free such a medium might be, while considerable effectiveness will be a by-product of the ownership and the control. Lesotho has an appreciable array of newspapers both in Sesotho and English. Recently four privately owned radio stations have opened and now supplement the work that had hitherto been the territory of one government owned station. The television medium is still to develop beyond government ownership.

(v) Adult Education Organisations that focus on Improving the Quality of Life

Organisations in this category focus on matters of health and well-being of people. They train and educate their members in the art of assisting and supporting citizens with their health problems. In Lesotho, this category encompasses organisations such as Lesotho Red Cross Society (LRCS), Lesotho Planned Parenthood Association (LPPA) and others. The Lesotho Red Cross Society aims at protecting life and health, while the Lesotho Planned Parenthood Association aims at providing a family planning service thereby encouraging the production of healthy children within the family. Some of the activities of the Lesotho Red Cross Society include: running rural health clinics, training instructors to teach first aid in schools, carrying out programmes for the disabled and needy as well as running relief operations in the mountains. The Lesotho Planned Parenthood Association (LPPA) provides family education and clinical services and also promotes good family planning. LPPA is now involved in the work to fight against HIV/AIDS through education and distribution of devices for protection.

The Case Studies

In this section we will discuss a few case studies of the present adult and continuing education institutions in Lesotho. These examples will come from the different classifications as stated above. We shall review the processes of their operations and their clientele including the scope of coverage.

Institute of Extra-Mural Studies (IEMS)

The Institute of Extra-Mural Studies is one of the institutes of the National University of Lesotho which is located in the capital city Maseru. Its general mission is to bring the University to the people. It is an example of organisations that focus on continuing education. The activities of the institute include:

* organising courses and classes for part-time students who are interested in obtaining university degree, diplomas and certificates;
* organising courses, seminars, workshops and conferences for specific interest groups, associations, professions etc.;
* providing training in general community;
* promoting research in non-formal education programmes;
* educating and organising local business people.

The programmes of IEMS are in three areas, viz: Certificate, Diploma and Degree in adult education which is housed in the Department of Adult Education; (ADE) diploma in Mass Communication is housed in the Department of Research, Evaluation and Media (REM); Certificate and Diploma in Business Studies, is housed in the Department of Business and Management Development. All these programmes are offered on a part-time basis and the periods of studies range from two years to four years. Our clientele's fields of employment also range from nursing, teaching, banking, media to community development, soldiering and secretaryships. For Business Studies and Mass Communication programmes, the students attend face-to-face lectures on daily basis, Monday to Friday from 5.00 p.m. to 7.30 p.m.

For adult education programmes the adoption of partial distance education delivery mode, using printed course materials produced specifically for this purpose, has made the meeting periods to be fortnightly over Saturdays and Sundays for the sub-degree programmes while the degree students attend classes for tutorials over one weekend in a month, although this is in addition to a compulsory residential session of four weeks in a semester. IEMS is just exploring with some supplementary electronic devices as delivery modes where such will be plausible, to enhance accessibility to learning. With the constant evaluations carried out regarding the acceptability of these programmes by the general public and their adequacy for the product's, job performances as assessed by their different employers, IEMS is on the right track, hence the greater demands as shown by the increase in the number of application forms for admission each passing year now.

Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC)

The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC), a department in the Ministry of Education of the Government of Lesotho, was established in February 1974, with the assistance of the International Extension College (IEC), which is based in the United Kingdom. The main challenges of LDTC as from independence in 1966, were to provide continuing education to those large number of people who could not enjoy full secondary education benefit because of many reasons. The other task emanated from an increasing number of people who were studying privately with commercial correspondence colleges in South Africa, whose courses were not only expensive but were also designed for a curriculum that was inapprorpaite for Lesotho's needs. Thus, LDTC was established primarily to extend educational opportunities to the above-mentioned groups of learners and that was to be done by employing distance education methods. As time went on, another group of clientele were added to the list of the earlier target audience and these are the herdboys and the rural populace who needed literacy and occupational skills necessary to improve their lives.

Just like IEMS, LDTC's clientele are mostly drop-out adults from the formal institutions, with an average age of 30, majority of whom are females and they are also working adults either in the teaching or secretarial profession and they live in urban or semi-urban centres.

The educational delivery modes adopted for all the above-mentioned continuing education programmes are a combination of self-instructional printed materials, radio broadcasts and face-to-face tutorials. The literacy programme of LDTC is a success story to a point in the rural villages where they maintain literacy learning posts. The reason for an incomplete success story is because of the bureaucratic bottlenecks where they operate the teaching process based on volunteers with little or no impressive payment of honoraria. Monitoring of the activities is limited while radio facility is not too effective because not every clientele has access to radios.The following are some LDTC's functions:

* provision of correspondence courses for Junior Certificate (JC), Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) and teachers who intend to upgrade their professional qualifications.
* provision of educational materials and workbooks for candidates who want to develop their

literacy and numeracy skills;

* production of booklets in Sesotho on practical topics as well as running of village-based workshops to train rural groups and individuals; and
* acting as service agency for other organisations by supplying them with a variety of services that are related to rural development.

Lesotho Institute of Public Administration and Management (LIPAM)

This is also a governmental structure, entrenched in the Ministerial bureaucracy, even though it offers academic credit programme up to the Diploma level with focus on adult learners, essentially the civil servants. The institution is affiliated to the National University of Lesotho through its department of Political and Administrative Studies. They operate both full time and mostly part-time programmes for the working adults who take such courses on the in-service basis. The institute was originally modeled after the UK's Royal Institute of Public Administration and was specifically designed to address continuing education needs of the civil service. The special areas include financial and materials management, computer literacy, management, research, consultancy and public administration.

Institute of Development Management (IDM)

This regional training organisation is a joint venture between the countries of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland designed to meet the management needs of the citizens of the three countries. With its headquarters in Botswana and training branches in the three countries, IDM has qualified academics in different fields of management but also uses part time staff a lot. The following are the objectives of IDM:

1) To improve the managerial knowledge and skills of persons charged with senior responsibilities for development in the Public, Parastatal and Private Sectors;
2) To provide management training, consultancy to middle and senior level personnel in the public, parastatal and private sectors;
3) To improve organizational structures, administrative and management procedures and development policies related to social and economic needs;
4) To improve the data base available for decision making with respect to development:
5) To extend public awareness of and encourage public involvement in all aspects of development (IDM, 1998).

All these are meant to encourage the professional development of the Basotho workers whose capacity building is paramount to the supply of appropriately qualified human resources.

Lesotho Opportunities Industrialisation Center (LOIC)

Lesotho Opportunities Industrialised Centre is a community-based, manpower training organisation which offers its services to the most educationally and economically disadvantaged Basotho. LOIC is an example of organisations that focus on vocational training needs especially for the youth. The following are the objectives of LOIC:

* to provide non-formal skills training to youths who are unable to complete formal education at post-primary school;
* to prepare and place in jobs, those youths who have received skills training at the LOIC;
* to work jointly and cooperatively with employers within Lesotho in order to ensure that LOIC skills training is always relevant to the manpower needs of the industrial sector;
* to refine the managerial knowledge and skills of supervisors, foremen, civil servants and small business owners, and
* to strive towards self-sufficiency through continuous resource mobilisation (Motsamai, 1998).

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Problems, strengths and prospects of adult and continuing education programmes

Although education is a viable tool for stimulating national development, cognitive education domain alone might not be able to solve all the ills of the society. However, it is a challenge that non-formal and continuing education should be strengthened to be able to take care of the marginalised group of Basotho people.

Problems

Lack of the coordinated effort of non-formal continuing education organizations, be it private or public is a terrible impediment to progress. Not only that, unnecessary duplication of efforts abound, there is also the unwarranted element of rivalry, all tending to affect quality assurance. Akin to this is the problem of delay in the governmental circle to approve and legislate on the draft NFE policy document which has been ready for almost a year now. It is envisaged that the NFE policy will not only harmonize the activities of NFE providers but also standardize the NFE practice and programmes in Lesotho.

Education is still a costly commodity in Lesotho as pupils still pay tuition fees right from the primary through high schools to the tertiary institutions. Considering the low economic base of every Mosotho and the low per capita income in the country, it is doubtful if all parents may be in a position to send their children to school and this may have a devastating effect on the future national socio-economic growth. The government must therefore invest on the education of the Basotho people by making education free and compulsory at the primary school level, while a nominal fee is charged, for a short time now, at the secondary and high schools, before tuition is also made free at this level. Starting from the year 2000, the government of Lesotho has started to implement a new policy of free basic education. This implementation has started at class one level and will be progressively covering class by class until the last class of primary school. This new and commendable strategy is expected to bring a lot of relief to parents and also enhance educational offering in Lesotho. It is also envisaged that this will significantly increase the literacy rate of both the women as well as the men.

Majority of the working adults who attend continuing education programmes for personal professional development face the financial predicaments of paying their own tuition as well as for their children's education and also for purchasing the prescribed text-books. This is more pronounced among adult learners who are labelled unqualified to benefit from the manpower bursary or scholarship on the basis of age. This should be looked into, as what is good for the goose is equally good for the gander, otherwise, this practice may be demotivating for adults learners to improve themselves.

Some unqualified and non-viable private non-formal and continuing education institutions continuously spring up here and there, without any form of control mechanism. Most of such institutions are only out to exploit innocent clientele, because most of them do not have adequate facilities to facilitate meaningful teaching and learning processes to take place. Furthermore, they operate in unconducive environments while their charges are prohibitive apart from recruiting unqualified teachers to facilitate classes. Another serious draw back is the lack of infrastructural and human resources supply in adequate quantity and quality to meet the needs of the heterogenous non-formal and continuing education clientele, so as to enhance the improvement of their conditions of living and thus enabling them to contribute to the national socio-economic development.

Strengths

Lesotho is a homogeneous country in terms of culture with one further monolithic language advantage. Basotho people are essentially christians, although with greater percentage being Roman Catholic. Language, culture and religion are major polarizing factors that divide a nation easily, but these play a

unifying role for national integration in Lesotho. The country itself is small in terms of population and land size, so if proper planning is made, even development can be achieved.

The fact that Lesotho is surrounded by the Republic of South Africa, there can be no external invasion which can lead to international/intercountry wars. In addition, the safeguard of RSA should lead to internal competition towards enormous challenge for visible developments to take place. For example, the water scheme of the LHDA is a source of wealth to Lesotho and there is more ample chance to tap greater mineral resources, proceeds from which can be judiciously expended on educating the Basotho youth and adults, cognitively and psycho-motor wise, at least for the improvement of conditions of living of the Basotho people.

Future Prospects

Educational provision should be a joint partnership between and among the government, the churches and the private organisations, and not just to be left in the hands of one group without heavy governmental involvement. For total development to be achieved in the areas of education, skills acquisition and rural transformation, it is pertinent that a ministry or a National Commission of Adult and Non-Formal Education should be put in place. This recommendation has been strongly advanced by adult educators in Lesotho like Moletsane and Braimoh (1995) and Lephoto, Mohasi and Bwatwa (1996). A situation like this will accord adult and non-formal education its rightful place in national development, as Adult Education plays a vital role in the life of any country. For example, when a society finds itself at the cross-roads of a social dilemma, when values and orientations of human beings are lost, the only answer to integrate the already disintegrated social lives will be an adult education programme. Such efforts will be geared towards the reformation, rehabilitation and reconstruction of the society, using, education, indeed, adult education, in all its ramifications, as a weapon of reactivation, mobilization and awareness creation in the citizenry.

More strategic plans must be put in place by the government to strengthen the use of electronic delivery mode, particularly the radio, to be more accessible to a wider audience in the geographically dispersed areas of Lesotho. This will be a potent channel for the delivery of all forms of education, including *Knowledge, Awareness and Practices of Political Education and Political Tolerance, nationality and patriotism*, HIV and AIDS pandemic as well as crime and community participation in development efforts, to mention a few.

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Chapter 11

THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUNIG EDUCATION IN MADAGASCAR

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Introduction

For the first time in this new century in Madagascar, elaborate reflections and commitments have been made to and on the usefuness and urgency of adult and continuing education. These reflections have led to awareness of the importance of adult and continuing education especially among stakeholders in Madagascar. Recently, about ten organizations met together and established the Madagascar Association for Adult Education (AMEA). The establishment of the association was a major step towards building a strong movement for the improvement of the adult and continuing education in the country.

These organisations have been working in permanent adult education training and literacy. For the last five years , the member organisations of the AMEA have carried out a continuous reflection process about integrated themes in this field. To facilitate this development, the member organisations collaborated with the Institute for International Co-operation of the German Adult Education Association (IZZ/DVV). Those reflections were to lay the foundations of the movement and on the other hand, fashion out the orientation strategy and proposals for future development. These reflections should ostensibly form the fous of the discussion contained in this chapter.

Adult and continuing education- an old practice

Adult and continuing education is not new in Madagascar. Traditionally, our people had their own ways and means of socialising community members into very important roles. The old practices may be easily discernible in the following elaborations:

1. Each one of us has an intuitive and often personal knowledge of education. In educational situation, there is always an educator or educated person. Learners are also identified. Educational situations are multiple and it can be claimed that human beings are perpetually oriented towards learning. Highly regarded under its simple form of new knowledge are research and new proficiency education said to be generated from nature. This was the origin of human perdition when the first humans on earth got tempted by the devil to have access to the field of the knowledge of what is good and bad.

2. Universal history tells us that formal adult and continuing education has been in existence as can be attested to in the example of Teenagers. This typical group of youngsters date back to the antiquity. It took the form of disciples gathering around their master.

3. Thus, adult and continuing education seemed always to be a natural but individual phenomenon from which the relative considerations emerge. Indeed, it is commonly said that it is not enough to copy, to adapt oneself to the"Master model". However, for a very long time, adult and continuing education was not directed to social preoccupation and reconstruction in Madagascar. Compared to children education, serious commitments about adult and continuing education have not been witnessed.

The status of adult and continuing education in Madagascar

When talking about education, it is always the provision for children and young that takes the pride of place. Talking about adult and continuing education seems not to be appropriate in Madagascar where the word *education* has been literally translated as the action of making oneself old enough. So, adult and continuing education is literally translated as the action of making adult persons become more self-directing. It can be seen then that the first sign of difficulty is that of social acceptance about the necessity of a true adult learning programme.

A quick survey of Madagascar oral literature allows us to suggest that the child 's state in Malagasy spirit would be an intermediate state, a transition state to adulthood and not like a particular state with its specifications and its proper yearnings. And education is often regarded as a kind of training given to an adult person.

Madagascar people have respect for old people who are regarded as experienced and wise. So for an old person to express the need for education is a bit difficult for he will be regarded as a failure. Sometimes, people imagine that such an old person expressing the need for education is merely exhibiting some kind of inferiority feeling towards educated people. Quite often, these educated people are much younger. Therefore for an adult to express such a need is to renounce this social status of experience and knowledge.

The historical context shows that the teaching of how to read and write has been the principal and virtually the one action of adult and continuing education in Malagasy for a long time. At the moment there is still so much perception of adult and continuing education as mainly encompassing teaching old persons how to read and write. This is translated pejoratively as a kind of *backward* education.

Right now, there is a law on education in our country. But the law is so much biased against adult and continuing education. For example, under the law adult and continuing education receives only a scanty mention. There are only two articles in it about functional adult literacy and education for family and social life.

Adult education is regarded sometimes as an ordinary thing, which needs no extensive moral and material support. Adult professional training and apprenticeship are most of the time limited to a mere copy of the existing models.

Other facts on the socio-economic and cultural environment

In Madagascar, rural population consists of 77% of the entire population. Rural people Represent a great number of productive segment of society, as they are the closest to the environment and nature. Yet environment and nature need to be well managed. This shows the urgent need for adult education programmes for empowerment.

The rural population also constitutes the majority of electors. In spite of their importance, Madagascar peasants have limited access to information and full participation in national debates focused on the future of the entire populace. Consequently, the rural populations have had to rely solely on other people for current information about their country. Towards this end, the principal sources for information are migratory movements and meetings in market place, centres of worship, traditional ceremonies, and the village assembly.

Communication is very much limited. For example, just about one out of three families would ever have a transistor radio. Access to reading newspaper is limited as well. From the foregoing, it stands to reason to argue that very many people are excluded from the process of governance in society.

Madagascar peasants school attendance

The statistics on this phenomenon are really disturbing. It might be rewarding to provide a Summary of the situation as follows:

* Less than 6 peasants out of 10 know how to read and write
* Out of 20 peasants, one person speaks French language, which is the official language.
* Those who were at school stayed there for about 3 years. Most drop out before completion.
* Less than half of children aged from 6-9 years old go to school and hardly half of children aged from 10-14 years old do ever go.
* For the last few years, the proportion of girls who attend school is increasing. But the overall representation of females in education is lower than for males at all levels.

The peasant cultural conditions

Solidarity exists but it is generally intra-ethnic. Outside this awareness, the attitude of everyone is to fend for himself/herself. Moreover, orality dominates the environment that is favorable to rumour and intimidation in various forms. Fear engendered by ignorance constitutes the common feelings of the peasant population

Problems in the physical environment

Madagascar is plagued with a number of problems. The range of problems varies from region to region. However, the commonest problems include the following:

* Drought
* Locust
* Insecurity
* Means of production deficiency
* Shortage of soils
* Soil degradation
* Animal disease.

However, the present practice of adult and continuing education, which is yet developing, appears to be promising. But there are changes challenges everyday. The physical environment manifests more and more difficulties of every kind. Adult education programmes are needed to convert this sad state of affairs in Malagasy.

Generally, these various difficulties are related to questions such as: How to do; what insurance to have concerning pertinence and choice of opportunity. These questions are not certainly waiting for an absolute and exhaustive list of answers. Such answers are expected from the reflections that are on-going. In other words, the answers are expected at the close of the permanent reflection process in which the AMEA and DVV-Antenna are engaged. Right now, the reflections and collective actions have led to a sketch trial of adult education typologies.

The adult education typologies

1. The first type of adult and continuing education is intended for individuals. It concerns the support to be given to individual's promotion, his professional promotion and for his rationalization of the social process. Sometimes, adult and continuing education substitutes for social function. Adult and continuing education can also be used as justification for individual promotion. It helps the individual in his/her citizenship political role.

2. The second type of adult and continuing education is oriented to work. In the enterprise, in order to raise the production of goods and services, qualifications to enter technological and

organizational evolutions must be updated and adapted to the best integration of human resources and to institutions in general.

3. Third type of programmes works like counseling given to those who are faced with one crisis or the other. Examples of such problems faced include unexpected risks (aids, demographical explosion, jobless, social breaking etc). Others maybe non-standardized situations (control, taking decision, conflict management etc). To this extent adult and continuing education reveals its form of permanent education. This goes along with their research and permanent actions to reduce risks, which threaten the human race.

4. The fourth type of programme appears general in nature. Such programmes can be useful in providing assistance in the concretisation of state interest. Faced with the problem of State disengagement, another approach is needed to specify a certain norm and a certain solidarity form by organizational intermediaries like Saving and Credit Mutual (MEC) and the national mobilization policies like National Population Programme. Other issues to focus on are:
   - unemployment; and
   - reduction of social conflicts.

5. The fifth type of programme concerns union and political education. Even if political and union fields are already touched by other types of adult and continuing education, they have their own specificity with regard to civic education, citizen education, ..etc. This kind of education is a bit apart, especially in relation with means and organizations that it uses (for example, political parties and unions on the one hand, and Civil Society organisations on the other).

Each type of Adult Education typology requires actions and activities appropriate to its effective implementation. However, the main indicator is that adult and continuing education programmes are needed.

Conclusion

From the foregoing it is clear that adult and continuing education in Malagasy is still struggling to gain recognition and attention. It is in its state of infancy. This is what makes the on-going reflections and dialogue among stakeholders all the more important and urgent.

The reflection and discussions led by the AMEA and DVV-Antenna in Madagascar need to continue even more vigorously. An immediate outcome of what has been done is the emergence of a funding approach strategy and methodology for the efficient collective actions and for concrete results to improve peoples' living conditions. We are cooperatively engaged in seeking answers and ways to improve adult and continuing education in Madagascar. Maybe, at another appropriate time in the future, we should be able to report on the progress made in the direction of specific actions and collective undertakings.

Chapter 12

DIVERSITY OF ADULT AND NONFORMAL EDUCATION PROVISIONS IN NAMIBIA

Sabo A.Indabawa

Introduction

A major issue of interest in the adult and continuing education discourse and practice in Namibia is that of the idea of an all-encompassing nonformal education (NFE). As is widely accepted, the scope of NFE is much wider than adult education, which may be restrictive due to its focus on the largely excluded adults in society, or the twin concept , continuing education that seeks to mainly extend one's quest for education and training opportunities especially in the workplace. Therefore, this chapter examines nonformal education as a more pertinent, school and non-school form of alternative education in Namibia.

There are established and irrefutable evidences which show the symbiotic and dialectical links between education and development. This is truer for nonformal mode of provisions (Akinpelu, 1990, Anyanwu, 1984; Duke, 1985; Obanewa, 1984; Omolewa, 1994; Indabawa, 1994; and Sagcan, 1997). Education can liberate and make human beings more completely human (Freire); it can empower especially the disadvantaged groups, including women (Bhasin, 1985; IRED, 1996); it is also capable of being an instrument for the eradication of poverty, preventable diseases, social aparthy, social immobility and can as well enhance the human potential for greater economic productivity and reduction of human social inequality (Ampene, 1980; Adiseshiah, 1980; Duke, 1983; and Indabawa, 1991). Given this background, any investment in educational provisions, whether formal or nonformal, will be well justified. However, this is not to suggest that education on its own will be the only precondition for human development. No. Education too, has its own damaging consequences on society, especially if it is used as a vehicle for promoting less than the general good of society; or it turns out to be irrelevant to the popular needs (Ayandele, 1974;Akinpelu, 1997).

The aim of this chapter is to stimulate discussion about and interest in nonformal educational provisions in the Republic of Namibia. In proceeding with this task, attention is paid to the following basic issues: country brief; concept of nonformal education; the policy context of nonformal education provisions; diversity of provisions; integration of formal with nonformal education; relevance and impacts of programmes to beneficiaries and a conclusion.

Country Brief

The Republic of Namibia, was previously called South West Africa. It was an indigenous African political community before its colonisation by Germany to which it became a Protectorate in 1884. It remained colonised, later by Britain, until 1919, when it was entrusted to South Africa by the League of Nations (the predecessor of the current global body-the United Nations Organisation).The period of the South African tutelage can best be described as a turbulent era of Namibia's systematic subjugation. Its own minority rule of the *'whites'*, better known as *apartheid,* was extended and it remained in place until independence on March 21st, 1990. This was the aftermath of a long struggle for national liberation led by the South West African Peoples Organisation (SWAPO), which has held political power since independence.

The Republic of Namibia covers a geographical area of 824,292 square kilomtres. It borders Angola to the North; South Africa to the South; Botswana to the East and the Atlantic Ocean to the West (Angula and Lewis-Grant, 1997). Namibia has, what may count as 11 ethnic groups and a reported population figure of

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1,401,711 consisting of 680,927 males and 720,784 females in 1991(EPL,1995). The population rose to 1.5 million in 1997 (Angula and Lewis-grant, 1997). In fact, there is some indication that the figure has risen to 1.8 million at the moment(1999)[1].

It is vital to note that Namibia is mainly an agrarian nation as " ... majority of the people live in rural areas pursuing essentially subsistence economic activities in agriculture, livestock and fishing"[2]. One of the negative legacies of the apartheid era is a segmented society, whose majority of citizens were deliberately denied the right to formal and nonformal education. This was essentially in order to enthrone and perpetuate some form of racial supremacy of the minority white segment of society, and in order to stamp out all possible threat to the order of apartheid that has been established. Therefore, even where sporadic and spasmodic provisions were available, the form and content of education were so sharply differentiated as to favour the minority white and disfavour the blacks, who formed the largest proportion of the population. This was in the pursuit of the apartheid state's *Bantu* system of education. Perhaps the desire to rectify this anomaly was the immediate factor that necessitated the enshrinement of the fundamental right of *all* to education, in the new Constitution.

Concept of Nonformal Education

The concept of Nonformal Education, as other concepts in education and the social sciences, is dynamic as is its own practice. In this regard, considerable theoretical and scholarly contributions have been made by many and in a variety of contexts. In fact, there is apparently an emerging body of knowledge on the Nonformal Education discourse. Nonformal education is generally seen as an alternative form of education, not bound by age or undue formalism and diversity in goals, nature and essence. It caters specifically to all who desire it in a variety of forms and with differing contexts. Further articulation of the concept, its practice, potentials, strategies, problems and prospects are found in scholarly accounts given by numerous intellectuals including the following, (Coombs and Ahmed, 1974; Bhola, 1983; La Belle, 1983;Hugkuntod & Lewis, 1987;Yoloye, 1987; Javis, 1990; and Indabawa, 1991).Yet, no matter which variant of meaning of the concept is accepted, Nonformal Education should be oriented towards meeting learners educational needs, quite outside the constraining boundaries of the formal system of education, which normally excludes (Illich, 1970), and de-skills (Dore, 1976). Consequently, in this chapter, Nonformal Education will be taken to simply imply:

> Any organised (though less rigidly so) learning (also educational) activity outside the structure of the formal education system that is consciously aimed at meeting the (specific) learning needs of a particular sub-groups in the community-be they children, youth, or adults (Garrido, 1992:84).

Critical issues apart from conception that have engaged the attention of many include the following: strategies of implementation of programmes for optimum effect; themes of nonformal education's coverage; clearly defined policy and planning parameters; co-ordination and collaboration, especially between state and non-governmental agencies, bodies and institutions engaged in nonformal education; delivery modes in a most cost effective way, given that not much attention is usually given to other than formal education in most developing countries; learning from and adapting 'successful' case studies; research and evaluation as well as impact assessment of programmes and projects. Once these are determined and the will for efficient programme implementation is mustered, nonformal education could be used to achieve the desired goal of promoting the personal (also individual) and society's goals and development, at a more meaningful and rapid rate. In Namibia, a major issue of interest is that of policy which is addressed below.

The Policy context of Nonformal Education

As indicated, the education sector in Namibia, remains one of the most negatively affected sector by the oppressive onslaught of the apartheid regime of the past. The entrenched system which differentiated educational provisions along colour lines; for White, Coloured and Blacks, not only segmented the society, but also led to the massive exclusion of especially, the black population from taking advantage of whatever benefits modern education provided in terms of skills, competencies and capacities for beneficial functioning in society. The so-called *Bantu* Education system was said to have been designed to aid the apartheid state to have:

> ...an effective white control over the education of the Africans (especially Blacks) for the promotion of ethnicity and the ensuring of the maintenance of educational facilities for Africans at a level much lower than that for the whites (UNIN, 1986:8)...Bantu system of education was aimed at the subservience and subjugation of the Africans on the one hand, and the inculcation of racial bigotry on the other hand... (Angula and Lewis-Grant, 1997:234).

Given the above scenario, the new SWAPO government was faced with a serious dilemma, not only of the need to widen access to education for all, especially the disadvantaged, but also the need to undo what education was used for; the division of society along racial lines. There was therefore the urgent need for a policy framework, for all educational matters but in particular, Adult and Nonformal Education, given its potential for compensating past injustice and the provision of new knowledge and skills to fit people into a new and changing society and the world. In fact, it has been noted that:

> ...after 40 years of the apartheid education system, the development of an empowering education, especially Adult education for the disadvantaged populations became one of the major challenges of the new government after independence (Hopfer, 1997:48).

The main instrument for policy framework is Article 20, Section (1) of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, which provides that: "...all persons shall have the right to education..." (MB&I, 1990,12).A second policy guide was evolved in 1993 when Government adopted a document entitled *'Towards Education For All: A developmental Brief for Education, Culture and Training''*. Henceforth, the education system shall seek to attain four major objectives: *Access; Equity; Quality* and *Democracy*. In this Document, the additional compelling reasons provided to justify effective government patronage of nonformal education were:

* "Only about 40% of our adult population is literate. Of those, most are just barely literate in their mother tongue;
* Less than half of our teaching force is professionally qualified and certified;
* English language competence is low in the general population and even in professional groups;
* There is too little development of the skills that we need;
* The culture of apartheid seriously hindered communication and exchange between language groups and communities in our country. Unfortunately, this legacy persists into the present"(MEC, 1993:97).

The situation was so alarming that it was declared that... "there is a serious educational backlog in our country"(MEC, 1993:97). However, the above spelled out the broad areas of focus of all adult and nonformal education programmes , projects and activities. It sets the pace for further action in concrete terms. But what has been the nature and diversity of nonformal education provisions in the country?

Diversity of Nonformal Education Provisions

There are broadly two diverse forms of nonformal education provisions in Namibia. These are provisions by government agencies and institutions and those which are mounted by a variety of non-government bodies, concerns, institutions and interest groups.

The goals of nonformal education in the country are basically three, namely:

i) To provide and promote literacy and numeracy programmes;

ii) To provide adult skills development; and

iii) To provide opportunities for distance education (including educational broadcasting)(MEC, 1993:99).

In this discourse, attention is focused on the programmes of the Directorate of Adult Basic Education(DABE), Ministry of Basic Education & Culture and the Namibian College of Open Learning (NAMCOL). However, a brief mention will be made of the role of government-funded tertiary institutions.

I Government Nonformal Education Provisions

a) DABE's National Literacy Programme in Namibia(NLPN)

The main programme of DABE is the National Literacy Programme in Namibia(NLPN). It was launched on September 5th, 1992 with a target of attaining a literacy rate of ... "80% by the year 2,000..."(MEC, 1993:98).Consequently, the aims of the programme were:

* *To empower adult and youths, so that they can participate in a fuller manner in the general development of the country and their own personal growth;*
* *To correct the imbalance in educational provision by providing literacy programmes for those adults who were not admitted to, or did not complete primary school; and*
* *To narrow the educational gap between parents and their children, and render them more capable of a fuller participation in community life (GRN/UNICEF, 1991:168).*

With an administrative structure, the Directorate of Adult Basic Education (DABE), headed by a Director and assisted by an array of senior staff in the Headquarters, Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, and a network of Regional Literacy Co-ordinators (RLC) and Regional Literacy Officers (RLO) in each of the seven educational regions in the country, in addition to District Literacy Officers and a large pool of Literacy Promoters, guided by the National Literacy Committee and similar structures at the local level, the ground was set for the effective operation of the programme (Lind, 1996). The initial enrolment of learners was 1,714, with 731 Promoters(also known as Instructors) in 705 Literacy Centres spread throughout the country (Lind, 1996). From inception to 1999, well over 200,000 to 300,000 learners have enrolled on the programme.[4] The NLPN runs through three basic stages as follows:

Stage one.

This Stage is a basic level at which emphasis is placed on providing learners literacy and numeracy skills in the mother tongue. About nine local languages are involved.

Stage two.

This is a follow-up stage to One, and is also conducted in the mother tongue. It forms an intermediate level of the literacy process.

Stage three.

This is the last of the stages. Here, learners are introduced to basic English for effective communication in everyday life, since it is the official language in government and the private sector.

On successful completion, learners are awarded an equivalent qualification equal in status to Grade 4 of formal primary education. In fact, an Adult Upper Primary curriculum has since been developed. For now all hands are on deck although much more needs to be done, and as in Bhola's words:... " *it is a call to colleagues for redoubling of efforts -informed with commitment and competence*" (Lind, 1996:14). In spite of this appeal it seems very doubtful if the target literacy rate of 80% will be achieved in a year's time. Indeed, the projected enrolment, which raises a more valid alarm on the improbability of target attainment, is as indicated in the following table.

Table 1: ***Projected and actual enrolment in NLPN, 1994 to 2000.***

Stage	94/95	95/96	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/2000	TOTAL
1	18,000	30,000	40,000	50,000	50,000	50,000	238,000
2	10,000	12,000	18,000	25,000	31,000	32,000	128,000
3	6,000	7,000	8,000	12,000	16,000	21,000	70,000
Prim/ABE	3,000	5,000	6,000	8,000	10,000	12,000	44,000
Total	37,000	54,000	72,000	95,000	107,000	115,000	**480,000**[5]

Source:

Lind,A.(1996) ***Free to Speak Up: An Overall Evaluation of the National Literacy Programme in Namibia*** Windhoek: Gamsberg Macmillan, page 18.

What is most interesting in the Namibian National Literacy Programme in Namibia, is the rate of females' participation, which is reportedly higher than that of males. In fact, only 25% of the learners are male (Lind, 1996:7). This is uncommon in most literacy projects in the developing world although it is the trend in most of southern Africa. Another interesting trend is the active support generated from donor agencies. So far, the Swedish International Development Agency SIDA,UNICEF, USAID, and ARI, CULLURA (Italian), have given material or direct financial support. Lately, the European Union also provided funds for the implementation of the Adult Skills Development for Self-Employment (A.S.D.S.E.). DABE and CISP collaborate in this direction. This is a complement income-generating venture based on the needs expressed by the learners of the NLPN. The beneficiaries are described as mainly the unemployed and under-employed adult population of Namibia. Therefore, for each beneficiary, a minimum of the sum of N$500 and maximum of N$4,000 is given at 2% interest rate, with a varying repayment schedules. The main objective of the scheme is poverty eradication and a way of strengthening the link between literacy and economic self-reliance and development (MBEC, n.d.).

Although it is in the nature of many literacy efforts to attract external support, for instance, as in the cases of the 1980 Nicaraguan National Literacy Crusade and Cuba's (Indabawa, 1991), and even Nigeria's[6]; it is not usual for a combination of these bodies to all come together to assist as is the case in Namibia. This is a singular advantage, which together with the 'existence of the necessary political will' (Bhola, cited in

Lind, 1996:14), should be enough reason for Namibia to attain the set target of 80% adult literacy rate by the end of the year 2000. But what has been the overall impact of the NLPN in the seven years of its existence and what mechanism is in place for adequate evaluation of goal attainment?

b) NAMCOL's programmes

The Namibian College of Open Learning is another major government outlet and institution for the promotion of nonformal educational provisions in the country. The College was established by Act of the Republic of Namibian Parliament No. 107 of May 20th ,1997.The Act is called the Namibian College of Open Learning Act, 1997 (GRN, Gazette No. 1570,1). NAMCOL was founded to achieve seven basic objectives, the first of which is more relevant to the present discussion. The Act states the agency's objectives as follow:

a). To contribute towards the social and economic development of Namibia by upgrading the educational level of adults and out-of-school youths;

i). Through programes of Open Learning;

ii). By designing, developing and offering programmes to address the diverse educational needs of such adults and out-of-school youths; and

iii). By providing opportunities for adults and out-of-school youths to upgrade their professional and vocational skills, as well as their level of general education, to attain economic self-improvement and managerial skills for the sound management of, inter alia, rural societies and non-governmental organisations...."(GRN, Gazette No.157:, 4).

Given the above, it is clear that the main mandate of the institution is remedial, to help in rectifying educational shortfalls related to the massive inability of many Namibians to obtain optimum levels of academic achievements especially in public examination. This was even more pertinent to disadvantaged groups, such as the black population who either had no opportunity for formal education or could not do well given the poor input into their education. It is usual to fill such gaps with nonfomal provisions with their potency as a tools for compensating previous social injustices or denial to 'good education'. But what has NAMCOL done since its inception in terms of programme provisions, etc? Basically, NAMCOL runs three noformal education programmes. Two are essentially remedial in nature. The other is intended to upgrade the educational and professional levels of development delivery agents in literacy, health, community development and other roles, including functions in NGOs. The programmes are:

i). ***Junior Secondary Certificate(JSC)***; for the upgrading of holders of Grade 10 qualification, but who have not made sufficient grades for further education;

ii). ***International General Certificate of Secondary Education(IGCSE)***: for holders of Grade 12 who have deficiencies in the grades obtained, that disenables them entry into tertiary institution, or even hinders their ability to get jobs, etc.; and

iii) ***The Certificate in Education for Development(CED)***; which is a middle level qualification for para-professionals in government, the private sector as well as NGOs.

On these programmes, the mode of delivery varies from face-to-face to distance. Over the years, enrolment has been impressive and students have been able to make up previous shortfall and several have catch- up either in terms of gaining entry into higher educational programmes or securing reasonable employment opportunities. The enrolment and other basic details from 1996 to 1998 are provided in the following table.

Table 2: Basic data on NAMCOL's Programmes 1996 to 1998.

S/No.	Programme	Mode of study*	Enrolment		
			1996	1997	1998
1	Junior Sec., Certificate course(JSC)	Face-to-face & Distance	5,076	6,703	9,727
2	International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE)	Face-to-face & Distance	1,197	9,897	10,439
3	Certificate in Education for Development (CED).	Distance	NA**	40***	75
		Grand totals =	**6,273**	**16,640**	**20,241**

Source: NAMCOL(1998) ***Annual Report,*** page 23.

Key:

* *NA = An indicator that factor is Not Applicable.*

** *This indicates that although the modes differ, preference is higher for distance by more than 70 percent of the clientele. This makes the programmes truly nonformal, in the sense that the distance mode usually suites the learners time choice, etc.*

*** *All of these students graduated in 1999 and were awarded certificates at an impressive ceremony held at Hotel Safari, Windhoek, on April 10th, 1999.None of the candidates failed, which is a further indication of the programme's strength, the student's commitment and the efficient management involved.*

Yet another interesting trend in NAMCOL's programmes is the higher participation of females. For instance, in 1998, 69% of students enrolled were females, leaving a lower 31% to the males. This compares favourably with females' rate of participation in the National Literacy Programme in Namibia. But does this make life qualitatively better for females than for males in Namibia? And how far has NAMCOL's effort contributed to the attainment of the goals of education in and independent Namibia? These questions can best be answered on the basis of data that may be generated through some appropriate empirical evaluation and research.

c) The Contribution of Tertiary Institutions

Some additional patronage for the sub-sector is emerging in the recent contributions of the University of Namibia, through its Centre for External Studies(CES). It manages a number of University programmes via the distance mode. But an even more direct contribution is given through the professional academic and service programmes of the newly established Department of Adult and Nonformal Education (DANFE). The Department is already up with a package of professional training programmes for nonformal education personnel from the Diploma up to the doctorate levels. It is also considerably involved in research and community service activities within Namibia and the SADC Region.

The Polytechnic of Namibia is also involved by way of providing up to seven Certificate and Diploma programmes at a distance, in such critical areas as Police Science and Public Administration. (PN, 1999, 149-168). In fact, there is a standing Distance Education Centre(now Centre for Lifelong Learning) in the institution, with staff and a large body of students engaged in these programmes. Interestingly, the Polytechnic uses the University of Namibia C.E.S. Regional Centre offices to serve their students in the

regions. This is a healthy sign of collaboration for nonformal education, in the tertiary sector in Namibia. It should be noted that both the University and the Polytechnic are state institutions established and funded by the Government of the Republic of Namibia. But the question is: Are the tertiary institutions doing enough for the nonformal education sub-sector in the country? The answer to this question will require a detailed objective analysis, although it can tentatively be argued that in the areas of training, research and community service, a lot is going on. But a lot more can be done, especially if the state can allocate more financial resources to address the escalating costs and competitive employment setting in the new economy.

d) The contributions of non-governmental organisations

As already indicated, there are other contributors to the efforts of providing nonformal education opportunities in Namibia. These are bodies that are more often driven into nonformal provision for the promotion of some interests, often religious, social political or even commercial. Therefore several religious and commonweal organisations are involved. The exact number of such bodies or an accurate lists of the types of programmes they provide may not be easily available given difficulties of documentation and the apparent insufficiency of research along these lines and the poor co-ordination of such efforts, which is a common phenomenon in education in most developing countries (Indabawa, 1992). In a survey of providers, conducted by the Centre for External Studies, in 1997, about 59 non-governmental organisations were identified as being function in the country (Frindt, 1997). For our purpose, 10 such bodies are listed and some of their nonformal education promoting activities highlighted. These are:

1. The Council of Churches in Namibia.
2. The Rossing Foundation Adult Education Centre.
3. Namibian Association for Literacy and Adult Education (NALAE).
4. ! NARA (a local training and consultancy outfit).
5. Academy of Learning.
6. Namibian Non-governmental organisations' forum (NANGOF).
7. Ehafo Vocational Skills Training Centre
8. Penduka Development Organisation (PDO).
9. Rural Peoples' Institute for Social Employment (RISE).
10. Namibia Rural development Project.

The contributions of each to NFE in Namibia is outline in the following section.

Council of Churches in Namibia(CCN)

The Council of Churches in Namibia, is an umbrella body Christian Churches in the country. It has played a leading role in the promotion of education generally before independence, but has paid particular attention to literacy promotion (RF, 1999). Its Headquarters is in the capital, but has a network spread across the nation. After independence, it has concentrated on the promotion of the English Language, especially through training for upgrading the language proficiency of teachers. This is an area of need given that the English is the official language of communication, and since Afrikaans had dominated the scene during apartheid, it is only reasonable to pay attention to it by all and sundry. In fact, English is the medium of instruction in most schools above lower primary level. The CCN intervention in this regard started in 1991 with the funding coming from a foreign donor body-Namibia Association of Norway (NAMAS).

The objectives of the project include the following:

* To upgrade the English (language competence) of government and non-government primary school teachers and the CCN English Language Desk teachers and the Children Desk Home-Based Kindergarten teachers;

* To upgrade (the) teaching methods used by teachers of English and ... teachers of other subjects.
* To give assistance to churches, organisations, and (the) private companies with their language training for income-generating purposes (RF, 1999,2).

Based on the above, the project has been going on for about 8 years and has reached a total of 3,848 beneficiaries, in 127 courses conducted in 39 locations within Namibia. The following table provides further information.

Table 3: Basic data on the CCN English Upgrading Courses, 1991-1998.

S/No.	Year	Number of courses	Number of participants.
1	1991	05	300
2	1992	23	621
3	1993	33	921
4	1994	22	553
5	1995	14	448
6	1996	17	529
7	1997	08	320
8	1998	05	156
Total =	8 years	127	3,848

Source:
This table is a slightly modified version of the copy obtained from the Project Co-ordinator, Ms. A. Odunlami, following an interview conducted on Thursday, June 17th, 1999. I acknowledge this with gratitude.

Although we have not paid attention to the content of the courses, there are evidences that it had been very useful to the beneficiaries. However, one notes that the number of courses and beneficiaries is on a decline in recent years; from a peak of 33 courses with 921 participants in 1993 to only 5 for 156 teachers in 1998. Is this an indication of exhaustion, lack of funds or the complete elimination of the problem of proficiency in English language among teachers in Namibia? Whatever be the case, this is a definite evidence of NGO contribution to nonformal education in Namibia. The tempo needs to be sustained for some years to come for total success.

Rossing Foundation Adult Education Centre
This is another vibrant NGO, which has made modest contribution to nonformal education provision in the country. This Centre was established in 1978, in order to help improve the quality of life of the average Namibia, through a variety of nonformal education programmes.

At the moment, the Centre offers seven main programmes, namely: Literacy in the English language (from Basic to Elementary, Intermediate and English for Business Communication); Typewriting; Word Processing; Book Keeping & Accounting; Needlework; Welding and Motor Vehicle Maintenance. The Centre attracts a large number of people and has succeeded in providing living skills for many, whose lives have improved qualitatively for the better. The effort is an on-going one and a lot more is needed to be done.

Namibian Association for Literacy and Adult Education(NALAE)
This is a national association that seeks to promote adult and nonformal education in all its ramifications.

Its main objective, as an umbrella body of practitioners , academics and all stakeholders in the profession, is advocacy for optimum policy framework, planning and implementation of programmes and projects in adult and nonformal education. One vehicle for attaining that goal is the organisation of workshops and similar activities aiming at sharing of information and experience in doing the job. In line with the above, NALAE, organised a follow-up national conference on Adult Education on September 1-2, 1998. This was sequel to Confintea V, and was organised in collaboration with the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, *via* DABE, NAMCOL, UNAM, the Working Group on Nonformal Education, and the national Commission for UNESCO. This seminal activity drew a total of 130 participants from all stakeholders. The outcome of the Conference is a document entitled *"National Plan of Action for Adult Learning"* reflecting the national priorities in adult and nonformal education for the Republic of Namibia. In fact the theme of the conference was "Adult Learning: The Future for Namibia". A national Council to implement the key activities in the Plan of Action is being strongly pursued by NALAE and other concerned parties. Like other bodies, NALAE needs to do more than just mere advocacy.

!NARA

This is another NGO which was founded in 1996 with aim of promoting nonformal education activities especially for disadvantaged Namibians. It provides services in the areas of training of trainers for community development and training in participatory methodology for development. This organisation is reported to have been receiving financial assistance by the Agency for Co-operation in Research and Development (ACORD). There is little documentary evidence on their other contribution, but certainly, !NARA is not one of the "one-man" NGOs which predominate in many countries.

Academy of Learning

This is one of the emerging commercial nonformal institutes which provide skills generating services for varying prices and to a wide variety of clients. It was established in 1987 and aims at providing management and business training and computer skills training. The target groups of its programmes are school leavers and employed persons who need some computing and other managerial skills for effective functioning. It is self sustaining and thrives on its own income, generated from tuition and other fees paid by its numerous clients.

Namibia Non-governmental Organisations' Forum (NANGOF)

This is another of the array of NGOs in involved in nonformal education. It is supposed to be an umbrella body of all NGOs in the country. In recent times, apart from advocacy, NANGOF conducted a major work entitled: *Study of Namibian NGO Capacity and Development* in 1996. This study was funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The work has become a vital reference material on NGO's capacity in the country. In particular, donors have been able to use it in determining partner NGOs.

Ehafo Vocational Skills Training Centre8

Ehafo is a novel nonformal education skills training Centre. It is a project of Ehafo Trust. The initiative which is a Kwanyama word connoting "joy or happiness", begun in 1995, although the organisation's genesis dated back to 1951, as Cripple Care Society, and from 1969, as Association for the Handicapped in South West Africa. The main aim of the Centre, at the moment, is the vocational rehabilitation of people with disabilities. The Centre offers short courses of 6 to 12 months duration in four areas, namely; Woodwork, Book Binding, Metalwork and Domestic work, including gardening. Ehafo has a large Centre workshop outside Windhoek to which learners, mainly disabled persons of the age range of 18 to 45, are transported on a free Bus Service. All initial learners pay a registration fee of N$150 (or about $24) payably in three instalments of N$50. However, once a person is admitted, a stipend of N$50 is provided on monthly basis for the duration of the programme. They are also provided "proper work clothing" free

of charge. Ehafo is supported by government and some donor bodies, including European Commission, CCFD (France), Kindernothilfe (Germany), Embassies of the Netherlands, Canada, and Australia, among others. No one will fail to make a token contribution, once one visits the Ehafo Centre, for it will be very evident to one that physical disability is not a hindrance to human potentials for innovation and capacity for self-reliance. In 1998, there were 140 beneficiaries. Ehafo is certainly an innovative nonformal education project, effective for human rehabilitation. It needs to be replicated in all places where persons with disability(PWDs) require education for the amelioration of their destitution.

Penduka Development Organisations (PDO)

Penduka was established in 1992, to offer nonformal education programmes in business and skills training. It is one of the leading functional NGOs in the field, work, especially in Northern Namibia; though has national network. Currently, its income-generating projects are on in the Caprivi, and Kavango. Others areas are, Kaokoland, Otjizondjupa, Spitakoppe, Heroland and parts of Southern Namibia. PDO mainly targets disabled women.

Rural Peoples' Institute for Social Employment (RISE)

This is a body founded in 1978, to provide capacity building programmes and projects to empower the disadvantaged Namibians. RISE also engages in advocacy and training of personnel of major non-governmental organisations and community based organisations as well. It also serves communal farmers and mobilises them for participation in small scale agrarian enterprise's projects and programmes. It has a network within the country and as other NGOs, it attracts funding from different sources for its activities.

Namibia Rural Development Project

The Namibia Rural Development Project came into being in 1990. The focus of its nonformal educational activities is on training and conscientisation of rural farmers. It also caters for unemployed youths, other disadvantaged groups. Its projects and programmes are of the income-generating nature. NRDP has projects sited at Otjinene, Epukiro and Witvlei. Apart from these, there are several others. Perhaps the questions that this account raise are: How do these programmes integrate with formal educational provisions? How far have these nonformal education provisions helped in providing education for generating skills that the average Namibian can use in securing gainful employment from which reasonable income can be obtained for a meaningful social existence? And what has been the relevance and impact of these programmes and projects on the overall agenda of accelerating socio-economic and political development in Namibia? These are some of the issues addresses in the next section.

Integration between formal and Nonformal education provisions

There are several ways through which nonformal education programmes integrate with the formal. One of the key relationships is that both are complementary to one another. In the case of Namibia, this is so because the main aim is to facilitate wider access to education for all. This will be in fulfilment of the provision of the Constitution, which guarantees the right to education to all citizens. A second area of convergence is that most of the government-sponsored programmes aim at providing equivalency qualifications. For example, the Certificate earned on completion of the literacy training provided through the National Literacy Programme in Namibia, is equal to lower primary (at Grade 4). From here, learners could take upper primary courses to be able to obtain an equivalent of Primary School Leaving Certificate. It is also possible that, especially youth who go through the NLPN, could 'return' to formal schooling on successful completion of their training. The limit is inestimable, for there are cases in Africa where neo-literates rise up through the educational ladder to even become University professors in their own rights[4]. Thirdly, the physical facilities of formal schools, including buildings, etc, are used, often in the evenings for nonformal education programmes. Fourthly, two of NAMCOL'S remedial programmes, namely the JSC and the IGCSE, prepare thousands of youths for re-entry into the formal tertiary institutions. Fifthly,

the almost all the Tutors of NAMCOL's programmes are secondary school teachers. In fact in 1998, the number of such tutors was '*728*' (NAMCOL, 1998,32). They teach on part-time basis. This is a common global dialectical link between formal and nonformal education programmes. It is most healthy, and adds value to nonformal education, given the cost-effectiveness of such arrangement. If the human resource requirement of nonformal education were to be paid for fully by sponsor (on full-time basis, the result will be , either that the cost of programme provision will be high, prohibitive and unbearable, or little of nonformal education provisions will be available.

The link of nonformal provision by non-governmental bodies to the formal is not so neat and clear. This is partly because, several of the programmes are only aimed at providing opportunities for the acquisition of life skills, and competencies, often without bias to certification or formal recognition, which may be a major basis of link with formal institutions.

However, given the funding and financial support provided to many such providers, experts and consultants, who are usually agents or products of formal educational institutions. These experts have done a lot especially in quality control and programme evaluation and assessment. These have helped to enrich programmes that are provided by both the state and non-state agencies in the Namibian society. There is no doubt the these linkages need to be sustained and improved upon, especially through collaboration throughout the SADC Region. It is most desirable to do so. Next, the issue of programme impact on beneficiaries and the larger society is examined.

Programme relevance and impact

Determining the relevance and impact of any educational programme provisions, is largely a subjective matter. Opinions will differ on what count for relevance and impact. Measuring these is even more problematic. But there is consensus on the fact that all programmes, including those in nonformal education must be relevant and meet the needs of the beneficiaries. In this regard, a claim can be made that all nonformal education programmes which attract clients are relevant to them. The issue of relevance will not be carried further in this discourse. However, the views expressed by programme providers and sponsors, beneficiaries and researches, based on verifiable evidences, can indicate the level of a programme's impact. Similarly, the extent to which programmes achieve their set objectives, may be an additional impact indicator. Also, the level of the improvement of the quality of life of programme participants and clientele, does tell how mush impact programmes have made. The latter is more the case with nonformal education provisions, since they are oriented to meeting existential interests of the participants.

In Namibia, the state-sponsored programmes have made an impressive impact. But much more can be done. How is this the case? For the NLPN, there is a standing External Review and Advisory Mission, (the ERA Mission). This has been in place since 1995 (MBEC, 1998). The annual reports turned from the Mission, indicate that there is an unequivocal impact of the NLPN. A major pointer to this is the systematic reduction of the adult illiteracy rate, thereby creating a literate society in which development will be more rapid. In particular, five impact areas have been identified. These are :

* *Greater and more positive attitude* to the use of modern economic and social institutions including banks, post office services, and hospitals.
* *Empowerment of learners* by way of attainment of higher levels of social consciousness and awareness. Several of the learners have expressed sentiments such as "My eyes are now open and I am now sure of my decisions" (Lind, 1996); for example to vote, go for further education, approach the police for help, go to court and lodge a complain, etc.
* *Higher esteem* and new social recognition and status arising from becoming neo-literate. This increases self confidence.

* *Greater parental support for children's education*, in fact the rise in national enrolment in formal education prgrammes is partly explained in terms of the giant strides being made to literacise the society.
* *Empowerment of women* in particular and enabling them to take an increasing interest in society's development activities.

Similar, but varying claims can be made on all other state-sponsored programmes. The impact of the NGO and CBO prgrammes too are manifest in the social mobility the new skills and competencies have provided for beneficiaries. This may not however be quantified given that much is yet to be investigated, researched into or documented. But overall, there is still an alarm on the real impact of all these efforts on society, for although :

> "The per capita income average in 1995 was nearly US$ 1,890 per annum, yet the larger proportion accounting for 55% ... has an income of less than US$ 100 (or N$600), making Namibia one of the most inequitable societies in Africa..."(Angula and Lewis-Grant)[10]

Yet it can be argued that, in the last four years a lot more has been done and perhaps the impact is higher. But given that there still some loud cry about increasing youth unemployment and related trepidations, it is possible to suggest that the impact on nonformal educational provisions needs to improve. This will be on vital step towards creating a better Namibian society in the twenty first century. But a UNESCO-sponsored project under the auspices of ERNESA on this theme may come up with more valid account of the impact of these programmes[11]. What is indisputable is that a lot has been done, but the Namibian society may be better off with an increased and sustained effort in formal and nonformal education provisions.

Conclusion

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to account for the diversity of nonformal education provisions in Namibia. Particular focus was placed on some two key government-sponsored programmes and a description of the efforts of ten functional non-governmental organisations. A mention was also made of the contribution of the tertiary institutions in the country. It is noted that there are a variety of provisions, based on existing policy framework, serving a diverse clientele, and having differential positive impacts on individuals and society. Arguably, these NFE provisions stand as a modest contribution to national development. But given the potency and relevance of education as an instrument of economic, social and political development, a lot more needs to be done. In fact it will be in order to pay an even more significant priority attention to the education sector; for it is a necessary prerequisite for optimum growth and advancement. The choice of focus on nonformal education provision will, evidently be prudential and a viable option with higher returns on investment and economy of scale. But in doing this, attention needs to be paid not only to additional programmes provision and improvement of current practices, but also to *research* on a regular and well- funded basis. This is because research informs practice in a most refined manner. In this direction, developing a Southern African Development Community Regional Agenda on nonformal education will be a most appropriate needed step to take.

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Notes

[1]This is based on the 1998 estimate using an annual growth rate of 3.1 %. See RN(1999) Namibia Trade Directory Windhoek: Namibia Directory CC, page 7.

[2]This is quoted from a Proposal on an Impact study /Project on Nonformal Basic Education Programmes in Namibia, being sponsored by UNESCO through ERNESA and NERA.

[3]This document has been published and is widely accepted as a policy guide for educational practice in Namibia. It has 12 main Sections which addressed all sectors of education and allocates responsibility as well as define the framework for the participation of the non-public sectors in educational provisions. This includes the NGOs and technical and multi-lateral donor bodies. The book was forwarded by the President Dr.. Sam Nujom ı himself; which in some way, indicates the significance government attaches to it. Whether the proclamations are being fully implemented, remains a matter of debate.

[4]However, it is widely known that to enrol in a literacy programme is different from completing it . Though many a times, learners drop out from programmes because they may have gotten what they went to the class for in the first instance. Yet, this may affect the overall success of programmes in terms of achieving set goals and targets.

[5]If the difference between the projected target enrolment and what the current optimum enrolment figure (that is 480,000-300,000= 180,000) is as wide as 180,000, is it possible to reach that number within the next six months?.'

[6]The UNDP committed about 8million US Dollars to Nigeria's literacy programme for five years,1995 to 2000. This has helped considerably. However, adult illiteracy still remains an' intractable' problem, perhaps staltificating the development leaf forward even more intensely.

[7]Evidence of this is the production of a book entitled: ' Developing Professional Adult Education Programmes in Namibia'; a product of the Nation-wide Professional Training Needs Assessment Survey, conducted between March to May, 1998, and which report formed the basis of the programmes developed. These were easily approved through the University structures. Four programmes, including the Ph.D. are already being offered. The publication thus becomes an addition to the body of knowledge on nonformal education in Namibia. Similarly, the staff of the Department were commissioned by UNESCO, under the auspices of Educational Research Network for Eastern and Southern Africa (ERNESA) to conduct an Impact Study Project on Improving Nonformal Basic Education Programmes in Namibia. The work, which is being done in about 10 African countries is nearly completed and is expected to come out in book form under the UNESCO publication series.

[8]Much of the information on Ehafo is generated from their pamphlets. Clear authorship and dates are not provided on most of them. Perhaps this is an indicator that studies are needed on such non-governmental organisations.

[9]A former Deputy Vice Chancellor, at Bayero University, Kano Nigeria, is a case in point. He acquired a secondary, Bachelors, Masters and doctoral qualifications; served as a Research Professor and became the University's Deputy Vice Chancellor. All of these on the pedestal of nonformal ,out-of-school equivalency qualification at the start.

[10]Note that Angula is one of the senior Ministers, who was in charge of the Ministry of Education and Culture, from independence, before its split into the Ministries of Basic Education and Culture (and later, Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture) and Higher Education, Vocational Training, Science and Technology. He is now the Minister for Higher Education and Employment Creation. The claim quoted above cannot be a mere imagination, although it is not uncommon to find the same situation in many parts of the world.

[11] However, there is some apprehension that the funds approved for this important study may not be as adequate as to allow for a more optimum conduct of the project and the follow-up programmes that would be envisaged. Yet still, it is 'better than nothing', but one hopes that more funds will come for more scholarly studies and interventions.

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Chapter 13

CONTINUING EDUCATION POLICY PROVISIONS AND OPTIONS IN NIGERIA

Gidado Tahir

Introduction

Perhaps it is worth cautioning from the onset to state that the contemporary notion of education has gone beyond what goes on inside the four walls of schools, since the total environment is perceived as a potential source of educational experience. Within this perspective, there exists a two-way traffic between the formal educational institutions and the community in which members of the former are engaged in learning activities within the latter, and the formal educational institutions in turn provide a pool of resource which members of the community could draw upon in the course of extending their educational experience (Mardock, 1974). These institutions must be sensitive to the aspirations of the local people as well as their continuing struggle for the control of their destinies. The translation of this element into concrete terms, that is, in the educational sense, therefore has both temporal and spatial dimensions (Fasokun, 1983:4).

Based on the above premise, this chapter seeks to examine the concept, policy provisions, implementation and options on continuing education in Nigeria. As is widely recognised, continuing education is easily a most important component of adult education that is reasonable in demand in countries where some degree of educational development has been achieved as is the case in Nigeria, a nation of more than 120 million people, with a wide network of formal and nonformal educational institutions, programmes and providing agencies and organisations (Indabawa, 1991).

Towards a definition of Continuing Education

By way of definition, continuing education (C.E.) is that subset of adult education that seeks to positively link the needs and aspirations of individuals with educational activities, for the full development of their potentialities and for the socioeconomic and political development of a nation-state. The concept is fundamentally couched in the notion of 'educability' which can be explained as the desire as well as the means to learn and to keep on learning (Thakur, 1984:3). It also implies that the learners have some contact with the 'school' system and are striving to build into the knowledge, skills and ideas already acquired (Tahir, 1985:4). Furthermore, it is a process of adoption of the workers' training to technological changes and the resultant increase in the minimum knowledge required (David, 1992).

Programmes

Continuing education programmes in Nigeria, as in other parts of the worlds, are as varied as their providers. However, the main types include the following broad ones: evening classes for professional qualifications, off-campus extension education, weekend colleges, study by distance or correspondence(now more widely identified as distance and open learning- DOL), vocational training, learning through seminars, workshops, conferences, lectures, cultural activities and vis radio or television programmes and several other forms (Imede,1983, Mereni, 1985, Tahir, 1985).

Content

The content of continuing education programmes could take several forms and shapes as well. It could be remedial, developmental or based on contemporary issues and concerns to various clienteles that would desire educational opportunities for self improvement or increase in professional capacity and competence

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(Frandson, 1987). Continuing education may be focused on examination or other learning outcome and assessment. A significant mark of continuing education is its flexibility and diversity (Fasokun, 1983:7). This form of education could be provided by organised educational institutions, professional associations, industry, armed forces, governmental and non-governmental agencies and organisations.

National policy provisions

Although continuing education is a subset of adult education, which is provided for in section 7 of the National Policy on Education in Nigeria (NPE), it seems to be present in almost all the 12 sections of the policy in different forms. Perhaps this is in line with the lifelong learning base of the policy itself. In describing continuing education, the Policy states that:

> The system will be flexible enough to accommodate both formal and nonformal education and will allow leaving and re-entry at certain points in the system. Classes will be provided after school hours to cater for drop outs and those who wish to further their education (FGN/NPE, section 11,97).

At the levels of the school system, including primary, and secondary education, the Policy recognises the inevitability of wastage and has therefore provided options to correct the anticipated deficiencies by enrolling such participants in continuing education programmes. At primary level, government pledges to 'discourage the incidence of drop-outs' by providing adult and nonformal education programmes to enable such drop-outs to resume their education later on (NPE, section 3, 15 (12). As would be expected, the dimension of the problem would be enlarged at the secondary education level. It thus anticipated that the problem of drop-outs would occur at any given point in the junior and senior secondary schools, as well as those who are not able to proceed on to the senior secondary school after junior secondary school. In this regard, opportunities for self-education, for example in the form of distance or correspondence education, etc would be provided (FGN/NPE, section 4, 27).

Although the section on higher education clearly spells out the Universities should render services to the community by 'assisting in national development through extra-mural extension services in the various departments' very little attention is give to continuing education. Admittedly, section 5,40 (a) provides that 'maximum efforts will be made to enable those who can benefit from higher education to be given access to it' and that 'such access may be through Universities, or correspondence courses, or Open University or part-time and work study programmes, etc'.

The sections on teacher and technical education are emphatic on continuing education too. With regard to teacher education, it has been firmly established that pre-service education is not in itself adequate. Therefore:

> "...government will do all it can within its means to provide and encourage other to provide in-service education to technical and other types of teachers" (FGN/NPE, 1989:14).

This emphasis is further reinforced in section 10, 84 (12) and (13) in which the document reiterates that:

> "... the system of correspondence education will be structured into the broadcasting programmes to enable teachers in remote areas to listen and react to such programmes as part of their on-the-job training and retraining" (FGN/NPE, 1989: 15).

Finally, the document goes further to state that:

> "... In-service education courses for up-grading teachers will be linked up with educational broadcasting" (FGN/NPE, 1989: 15).

The section on technical education, apart from providing the required continuing services to technical teachers, delves fairly extensively into the nature of courses and facilities necessary to ensure effective continuing education for workers and other occupational grous. Specifically, section 6, 50 (vii) provides that:

> ...Equipment and other facilities in technical institutions will be utilised for evening classes and for adult and nonformal education, for instance in establishing programmes for groups of trades and roadside mechanics. The question of accreditation for roadside mechanics and others who complete training programme through nonformal education will be taken up the by the National Board for Technical Education (FGN,1989:16).

The Government also recognises the 'need and importance of courses designed to up-grade and retain our tradesmen and technicians and such training will be made available at all levels of technical education'. The Policy further directs the state governments to establish multi-purpose vocational centres and other similar institutions for artisan training, and advanced craft courses to prepare suitable craftsmen for foreman and supervisory positions.

Conversely, no special mention is made of continuing in the section on special education. Whereas a fairly substantial portion of the section on adult and nonformal education deals with continuing education albeit in reality it is by and large a repetition of the same provisions which appeared in the other sections of the document. The only aspect of this section which is not continuing education is literacy education.

It is quite clear from this outline that the Policy has 'sufficiently' provided for continuing needs of the various constituencies in the country. Therefore, the issue at stake is the extent to which these provisions could be meaningfully implemented.

Implementing the provisions

It is important that Nigeria deserves to have a comprehensive continuing education policy in view of the current developments in the educational scene. The need is further exacerbated by the incapacity of the formal school system to satisfy the insatiable demand of the people for more and varied forms of education. As earlier alluded to, the NAPE has gone a long way in making fairly adequate provisions to take care of these needs and aspirations.

However, the document has some lapses all the same. At the level of clarity of goal, it would seem that the document had not provided in clear terms what continuing education is expected to achieve. This is even more glaring in the section on technical education. Should continuing education be remedial, developmental or cultural? Or should it be all of them and at what point in time could they be provided? The point here is that there is a need for a clear goal which should in turn be prioritised and embarked upon on the basis of the prevailing situations. Furthermore, besides the confusion in the application of the

concept, the Policy's managerial sub-system is with ambiguous ascriptive role relationships. Stated interrogatively, what are the specific roles of the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), the National Teachers Institute (NTI), the Industrial Training Fund (ITF), the National Universities Commission (NUC), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), the Ministries of Education, the educational institutions, Industry and the private sector, relevant government parastatals and private organisations in the provision and accreditation of continuing education programmes?

Another vital policy issue is that the language of the policy at the level of practice stands merely as presumptuous and impotent. A particular issue of concern is that of funding for continuing education, which is not adequately addressed. In this regard, even government higher educational institutions that are expected to carry the major mandate are relatively poor funded to cope with the demand for the expanded educational services to respond to peoples continuing education needs in society. Consequently, for the institutions to offer these types of programmes, the alternative remains for them to charge economy fees, which is a normal practice of provision for such services in the private sector domain. But, the learner often bears the brunt of high cost and sometimes poor and lowly valued continuing education programmes. Therefore, what seems to be needed is the existence of regulatory body that could reasonably depend and protect the interest of the potential participant. It would also be pertinent for the Federal Ministry of Education to provide a regulatory framework, guidelines and leadership in this direction.

In view of the issues indicated above, it seems that implementing the continuing education provisions of the National Policy on Education may be intractable, given that the capacities of providing agencies vary across the nation. For example, workers education programmes in industry are said to be better organised and funded than those in the public sector (Tahir, 1985). There are sufficient indicators that industry provide effective on-the-job and further training for their employees. In 1980 alone, it was reported that in industry, over 22 courses were mounted for workers alone (CMD, 1980).

The comparative performance of the public sector could not be any near that of industry. Indeed, the emphasis of worker progrmmes in government establishments tended to be for managerial and executive cadres to the neglect of the more urgent continuing education demand of the middle and lower cadres. In addition, professional education for the other ranks in the armed forces more articulate, better organised and funded than those provided by the various training centres in state ministries of works, etc (Tahir, 1985). It is obvious that higher education institutions are more interested in credit earning programmes for certification and related formal purposes. Although it may be noted that at times, educational institutions make their facilities available for continuing education purposes, including helping with the organisation of programmes for community members from time to time. However, their presence in the communities where they are located does not seem to be sufficiently felt (Tahir, 1985). It is also noticeable that the continuing education programmes of tertiary institutions are oriented towards an elitist tendency of meeting the demand of external examination bodies and institutions.

Policy options

In view of the harsh realities of Nigeria's declining economic fortunes, sequel to the unpredictable global oil market, weak export earning capacity and worsening terms of international trade, education is hard hit by the act of budgetary cuts and reduction over the years. Furthermore, as a result of these economic problems, unemployment has greatly increased as poverty also spread to an ever increasing number of families (Tahir, 1985: 11). Formal education provision has declined considerably in the face of escalating demand, particularly in the educationally underdeveloped parts of the country, in addition to the higher incidence of wastage in the education industry. All of these incidence have some direct implications for continuing education programme provisions in Nigeria. What is to be done in the circumstance, remains the vital question. Several options can be taken. Here, our discussion centres on five policy and strategic

alternatives stated as follows:

(i). The provision for continuing education in the National Policy on Education need to be thoroughly re-examined. In particular, it is necessary to clarify C.E.'s purpose and evolve concrete goals with definite schedules of responsibilities and courses of actions to avoid existing ambiguities. It seems that the only clear continuing education provision in the NPE is that on in-service teacher education. But even this is less categorical particularly when it comes to the roles of implementing agencies such as the National Teachers Institute and the several Institutes of Education in tertiary institutions. The options in this regard is to ensure that the NTI concentrates on teacher education improvement activities at lower (that is primary school) levels, while the Institutes pay greater attention to teacher education needs of post- primary and higher levels. This will create greater synergy and could be a more systematic way of applying continuing education alternative to improving teacher education in Nigeria. It is also a neater way of forging diversified integration between formal and nonfomal education.

It is also important to suggest that more units dealing with teacher education in-service education activities need to be established in Universities where this is lacking. This will help in the effort to affiliate teacher education programmes especially mounted in Colleges of Education in the immediate environment of these institutions, although affiliation and accreditation functions may ultimately lie in the hand of the National Commission for Colleges of Education. The university level teacher in-service education units may be empowered to perform the functions of the National Open University that was de-established in 1983, particularly the function of teacher renewal and re-education on a continuous basis. These units should be fully funded by government to enable them to discharge their assigned functions efficiently.

(ii). All the Polytechnics in the country should be able to provide practical vocational re-education programmes for technicians, technologists and apprentices as envisaged in the National Policy on Education. It will be useful to learn form the continuing education programmes of the armed forces and those offered in industries. It will also be productive for the Polytechnics in Nigeria to widen the scope of their activities in continuing education programmes provision as this will contribute to generation of greater skills and competencies as well as community economic empowerment.

(iii). It is suggested that there is the need to increase the tempo of continunig education programmes for leisure as well as for academic remediation or follow-up through G.C.E. at ordinary and advanced levels or their SSCE equivalent. This should be the responsibility of the States Ministries of Education, private institutions, the armed forces, voluntary associations (especially the professional ones), and non-governmental organisations. It will be prudential to also limit the outreach of remedial programmes offered by tertiary institutions to their catchment areas and localities. These programmes should then serve as supplement to the continuing education programmes provided by other agencies.

(iv). It is strongly recommended that the continuing education and training of workers in industry, the armed forces and public service should receive more attention. This will help in boosting the productive capacities of the workers that are usually targeted. Similarly, it will be necessary for the national labour organisation, the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) to take more vigorous interest in the continuing education of workers in a more articulate and decisive manner.

(v). The Federal Ministry of Labour, Employment and Productivity should serve as a regulatory body

in matters of workers education in all sectors of the economy, particularly in the areas of legislation for and institutionalisation of continuing education for workers in Nigeria.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the provisions for continuing education in the National Policy on Education in Nigeria. The aim of the discussion was to ascertain the clarity of policy provisions and possibility of effective implementation in the context of the prevailing conditions of the country. The discussion begun with an explication on the concept, programmes and content of continuing education. We noted the need for a comprehensive national policy on continuing education, which becomes necessary given the inability of the formal system of education to cope with the demand for various forms of educational opportunities and experiences.

It was found that although the NPE made fairly adequate provisions for other sector of educational practice, this was not the case with continuing education. Consequently and in order to address the observed deficiencies, five recommendations were made. It is hoped that these will help to strengthen the policy thrust and enhance adult and continuing education practice in Nigeria.

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Chapter 14

THE STATE OF ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN SENEGAL

Lamine Kane

Introduction

When reflecting on the state of Adult Education in West Africa particularly in the Francophone and Anglophone countries, one needs to have a historical perspective and question the policy of the two colonial masters (France and England) which undoubtedly have left their marks in present day Adult Education policies in West Africa. France had a more centralized political system while the British practiced what was known as the indirect rule system. However, none of these systems was really good for Africans. In fact had it not been for this colonial accident, it is probable that Africa would have by now been a super power.

We learn from history that the British colonialists felt that development had to come from the indigenous communities whereas in the French system, it was all expected to come from the central government. But, in practice in all colonies, there was a large gap between the rural and urban populations. Within the Francophone countries, most urban citizens were considered as French citizens set apart from the rest of the people. School age children in urban areas were sent to French schools, and the adult citizens were judged in French tribunals. This was the main mark of the French assimilation policy, which created black French men and women and completely neglected people in rural areas who were considered as French subjects with no right to education and fair judgment. Thus, in the French colonial policy, there was a large gap between the educated and the uneducated. The Policy has had a negative effect on adult literacy policy and practice in most African Francophone countries. This is particularly true of Senegal where the French language was the medium of instruction in literacy classes up to the early 1980s.

Understanding the concept

The concept of Adult and continuing education is not understood at the same level in all Francophone countries. Adult literacy teaching, community development, vocational training etc, constitute different components of adult and continuing education. In most of Francophone countries, all adult and continuing education institutional frameworks are scattered in various ministries of government. Furthermore, in most of the African countries south of the Sahara, the situation of the educational system is such that adult and continuing education is simply ignored. It is because of all these that this chapter will focus on the state of literacy teaching, as the first stage of adult and continuing education in Senegal.

Background

Senegal has had various experiences in the field of literacy through the French language since the colonial period. But these experiences which came through were individual's and missionaries' efforts, have hardly ever been adequately evaluated. In 1971 the Senegalese government defined a national adult literacy policy closely linked to vocational training and continuing education. At the same time, it set up a national body called the National Literacy Directorate whose main objective was to implement the policy. Thereafter, the government decided to adopt a programme of functional Literacy following the definition of its operatonal framework at the Teheran UNESCO Conference on Education.

During that year, the government formulated a decree on the use of national languages in literacy teaching. Hence, national languages are used in literacy only in rural areas while French remains the medium of instruction in literacy classes in urban areas. Shortly after taking this decision, the Senegalese government

made it clear that French remains the official language. The policy stated that:

> "it is not desirable nor possible to choose another language beside French which is both the official language and the medium of instruction in the formal system".

It is only during the 1980s that the Senegalese national language became a nation wide medium of instruction in literacy teaching while in the formal schooling system French remained the sole medium of instruction.

By 1993, through intense national and international pressure on the government for educational reforms particularly following the Jomtien Conference in Thailand in 1990, that the Senegalese government created the Ministry of Literacy and National Languages. The Ministry has been implementing the language policy since its creation.

Policy and Strategy

1. The Policy

The Senegalese government considers the fight against illiteracy as a national priority. Its main objective is to reduce adult illiteracy by 5% annually in a systematic way. In this respect, the following priorities which constitute the basic principles of the government Ten Years Plan of Action (1995-2005) were designed to:

- Sensibly reduce the adult illiteracy rate by 5% per year in the age group 9-15 years so as to ensure an immediate impact on the social, economic and educational indicators.
- Reduce regional and gender disparities within the education sector.
- Promote functional literacy and the development of alternative models by using national languages as the medium of instruction.
- Promote a literate environment so as to help consolidate the neo-literates' literacy.
- Coordinate and follow up all interventions within the sector and to make sure they are in conformity with the government action plan.

2. The Strategy

The government's intervention is based on the "faire-faire" principles, which is a strategy that aims at empowering Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the civil society in the implementation process of literacy activities. In other words, through the principles of "faire-faire" the Senegalese state devolves some duties and responsibilities to the civil society.

(i). The role of the Government:

The policy is built on the basis of the principle that the government plays a key role in the leading the education sector. Thus, it defines the objectives, coordinates and evaluates the sector in conformity with the objectives of the designed Action Plan.

(ii). The role of partners:

Partners can be defined as: beneficiaries, local NGOs, Funding Agencies and any other official body involved in the sector. The government's objectives aim at helping local literacy providers or operators to expand their programmes and coordinate funding agencies' efforts along with those of all other partners.

3. Magnitude of illiteracy in Senegal

According to official figures, by 1994, 68.4% of the Senegalese population was not literate. Of the total,

59% represent the male population as against 77.2% for the female. The following table provides some details.

Table 1 : The magnitude of adult illiteracy in regions of Senegal for 1992 (in %).

Region	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Dakar	33.6	53.8	43.8
Ziguinchor	41	67.7	54.8
Diourbel	74	91	83.1
St.Louis	66.2	82.4	74.9
Tamba	75.1	89	82.2
Kaolack	69	83.2	75
Thies	58.7	76.4	67.9
Louga	74.3	90.8	83.2
Fatick	69	81.7	75.6
Kolda	73.8	90.1	82.1
Total	**59**	**77.2**	**68.4**

Source: Ministry of Literacy and National Languages, 1992.

Table 1 shows that illiteracy rates are smaller in Dakar and Ziguinchor regions. As a matter of fact, primary school enrolment in these two regions has reached 100%. This success has helped to curb the adult illiteracy rate. On the contrary, the Diourbel, Louga and Tamba regions have the smallest school enrollment figures, particularly for girls. These are the regions of migrants (Louga and Tamba) or with profound Islamic influence (Diourbel). In the latter, parents prefer to send their children to Islamic schools rather than in the formal school system.

4. Achievements

It is very difficult to speak about the achievements reached in the field of adult literacy. So far, there is no known national evaluation of literacy activities in Senegal. However, the Ministry has worked over the past years with some three leading projects in the field. These partners are:

(a). PAPF Project

This is a female literacy project financed by the World Bank. It is a 13 million USD project, which aims to reach 300,000 learners in six years (1996-2002) 75% of whom are women. It covers six Senegalese regions out of ten, namely, Dakar, Diourbel, Fatick, Kolda, Louga and Tamba.

(b). PAPA Project

It is a Canadian backed project whose main aim is to assist the ten years plan of action against illiteracy. The PAPA project covers seven regions which are: Kaolack, Kolda, Louga, Saint Louis, Tamba, Thies and Ziguinchor.

(c). The PAIS Project

It is a state owned project, which covers the whole country and therefore reaches every regions.
The final results achieved by all these projects can be read from the following figures:

Table 2: Number of Adult Learners According to Programmes:

Campaigns		Pais Project	Papf Project	Papa Project	Other Programmes	Total
Year						
	M	13,850	-	-	8,047	24,306
1992/93	W	16,259	-	-	6,323	20,173
	T	30,109	0	0	14,370	44,479
	M	38,530	-	-	28,452	74,532
1993/94	W	46,080	-	-	22,955	61,485
	T	84,610	0	0	51,407	136,017
	M	17,692	-	-	39,150	79,607
1994/95	W	40,457	-	-	23,442	41,134
	T	58,149	0	0	62,592	120,741
	M	14,831	0,759	-	42,021	88,520
1995/96	W	40,048	6,451	-	18,579	34,169
	T	54,879	7,210	0	60,600	122,689
	M	5,571	4,532	6,054	54,153	126,434
1996/97	W	23,532	31,062	17,687	17,448	33,605
	T	29,103	35,594	23,741	71,601	160,039
	M	**90,474**	**5,291**	**6,054**	**171,823**	**393,399**
Total	**W**	**166,376**	**37,513**	**17,687**	**88,747**	**190,566**
	T	**256,850**	**42,804**	**23,741**	**260,570**	**583,965**

Legend: M = Men W = Women T = Total

NB: The gap between the 1993/94 campaigns with that of 1994/95 was mainly due to the elimination of double shift classrooms within which one facilitator used to teach two to three different groups. As we can notice from the table 2 the yearly objective to reach 120,000 learners is met since 1993. It's because of this success that officials predicted a 52.78% illiteracy rate by 1998.

***Table 3*:** Number and percentages of learners according to gender and campaigns

Campaigns	%Male	% Female	Total	%Yearly Difference
1993/94	47606 35.0	88411 65.0	136 017	-
1994/95	41134 34.1	79607 65.9	120 741	11.2
1995/96	34169 27.0	88520 72.1	122 689	1.6
1996/97	33605 21.0	126434 79.0	160 039	30.4
Grand Total	**156514 29.0**	**382972 71.0**	**539 486**	

Source: National Literacy Directory/Statistics Division.

From table 3, we noticed that female frequency is well over and above the estimated 65% per year, since 1994/95. By and large, the female frequency percentage doubles by far that of men, as indicated in the grand total: 29% for men against 71% for women.

Table 4: **National distribution of learners per literacy programme and regions:**

Region		Papf	Papa	Pais-Etat	O/Programme	Grand Total	% /R
	M	724	-	387	1,103	2,214	
DAKAR	W	4,102	-	2,925	4,983	12,010	
	T	4,826	0	3,312	6,086	14,224	9
	M	532	-	161	526	1,219	
DIOUBEL	W	6,174	-	3,199	5,845	15,218	
	T	6,706	0	3,360	6,371	16,437	10
	M	925	-	521	868	2,314	
FATICK	W	6,324	-	2,219	1,363	9,906	
	T	7,249	0	2,740	2,231	12,220	8
	M	-	658	447	893	1,998	
KOALA	W	-	2,606	2,156	2,882	7,644	
	T	0	3,264	2,603	3,775	9,642	6
	M	1,409	863	878	919	4,069	
KOLDA	W	5,172	1,500	1,235	3,254	11,161	
	T	6,581	2,363	2,113	4,173	15,230	10
	M	761	41	458	1,053	2,313	
LOUGA	W	8,647	1,052	2,578	2,998	15,275	
	T	9,408	1,093	3,036	4,051	17,588	11
	M	-	1,583	604	7,238	9,425	
ST-LOUIS	W	-	2,944	1,788	13,120	17,852	
	T	0	4,527	2,392	20,358	27,277	17
	M	181	1996	1,127	2,136	5,440	
TAMBA	W	643	4,122	1,405	2,508	8,678	
	T	824	6,118	2,532	4,644	14,118	9
	M	-	67	778	2,522	3,367	
THIE	W	-	1,765	4,163	15,709	21,637	
	T	0	1832	4,941	18,231	25,004	16
	M	-	846	210	190	1,246	
ZUIGUINC	W	-	3,698	1,864	1,491	7,053	
HOR	T	0	4,544	2,074	1,681	8,299	5
	M	4,532	6,054	5,571	17,448	33,605	
TOTAL	W	31,062	17,687	23,532	54,153	126,434	
	T	35,594	23,741	29,103	71,601	160,039	100
	M	-	26	19	24	21	
% PER SEX	W	-	74	81	76	79	
	T	100	100	100	100	100	

Legend: 0 = Regions not covered by the programme
Source: *Statistic Division of National Literacy Directorate.*

Table 4 shows that literacy in Senegal is really becoming a female business. Female enrollment represents 79% of the learners. Some regions are doing particularly well: Saint Louis represents 17% of the total number of learners. This explains the thirst for knowledge and the dynamism of the Fulani people who live in the northern part of Senegal, i.e. in the Saint Louis regions. On the other hand, the 5% rate of Ziguinchor, which is the lowest, is mainly due to the social unrest in the southern region of Senegal, which is victim of a separatist rebellion over the past decades.

Beside this linguistic issue, there are some other technical problems that need to be properly addressed. Only very limited literacy experiences have been evaluated. Various reasons explain the situation as:

- Evaluation is one of the literacy components that are very not known. Most people find it difficult to grasp it evaluation.
- It can be costly: that is why many literacy providers prefer not to conduct proper evaluations.
- Finally, some fear the evaluation results that may sanction negatively their work.

Coming now to the "faire – faire" strategy, one has to say that it has had some side effects with devastating consequences on various literacy programmes in Senegal. As a matter of fact, the "faire – faire", has sharpen people's appetite in such a way that there is now a new race of literacy entrepreneurs whose main aim is only to be eligible in the organization of literacy classes in order to be funded by on-going bilateral or multilateral literacy projects.

Furthermore, literacy operators use various methodologies ranging from functional literacy, traditional literacy, psychosocial literacy methodologies etc. Consequently, a variety of didactic materials both for learners and facilitators are being used without being approved by the National Literacy Directorate.

Finally, what is really missing is an enlarged vision of Adult and Continuing Education in most of these countries. Community development, and/or rural animation, vocational training, literacy teaching, distance education etc. are all different facets of Adult Education that are not connected, interrelated or interacted. No doubt that the Senegalese Ministry of Literacy and National Languages, which was set up by 1993, is in itself a true expression of the Senegalese governments' goodwill to solve the illiteracy issue. But the Ministry seems to be a real political football as it was headed since, by politicians ranging from the liberals to socialists and all sorts of left wing politicians while professionals were mostly pushed away.

Finally, there is an urgent need to train professionals at University level: there is no Adult Education department in most of the African Francophone Universities. In most of these countries, Adult Education personnel are only recruited from primary school teachers and inspectors who often confuse Adult Education and Child Education methodologies.

Chapter 15

THE POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONTEXTS OF ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Zelda Groener

Introduction

The prospects for transforming education and the broader South African society during the 1990s seem to have been eclipsed by the insurgence of neo-liberalism. South Africa's transition from apartheid seems to have been caught in the maelstrom of the global shift to neo-liberalism which is reflected in the internationalisation and globalisation of the South African political economy. As South Africa emerged from the perils of apartheid during the early 1990s, the redistribution of wealth and income, the nationalisation of mines and industry, and the redress of inequalities in basic social services were promoted for the radical transformation of the society. In a society characterised by such vast inequality in the distribution of income, wealth, employment and educational opportunities, redistribution seems critical.

This chapter contends that the scale of unequal distribution warrants government intervention through redistribution, particularly in respect of social services. The democratic government's development policies which are captured in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development and the macro-economic strategy, 'Growth, Employment and Redistribution' promote redistribution. The changes in development policies over the last five years reveal a progressive shift in the government's political and economic agendas from social transformation towards neo-liberalism. These shifts, as such, have signified critical changes in the policies and approaches to redistribution. 'Growth through redistribution' has been challenged by 'Redistribution through growth'. The role of government in redistribution has been contested by the role of the market in redistribution. These tensions, contradictions and dilemmas concerning redistribution lie at the heart of the dynamics between social transformation and neo-liberalism, embedded in the government's development policies and in its adult education and training policies.

The central assertion is that neo-liberalism has undermined the role of government in redistribution and consequently, limited the possibilities for social transformation. There is an acknowledgement that neo-liberalism, through its emphasis on global competitiveness, has focussed government's attention on the neccessity for workplace adult education and training. At the same time attention is also drawn to the plight of theunemployed who constitute the majority of the illiterate population. The argument is that, in order for adult education and training to make a significant contribution to transforming the lives of the poor, the redress of adult education and training inequalities should be linked to the redress of the broader socio-political and economic inequalities which in turn should be related to redistribution. Arguing that the redistribution of income, wealth and educational opportunities by government, is critical to redressing the scale of socio-political and economic inequality in South Africa, this chapter analyses the relationship between adult education, training and development policies in relation to neo-liberalism, social transformation and redistribution. Although this analysis, situated in the complex and problematic debates concerning redistribution, remains somewhat inconclusive, it provides a perspective on the constraints and limitations of adult education and training's contribution to redressing inequality in the sphere of adult education and beyond.

Adult education and training inequalities: The political and economic imperatives

Political and economic inequalities continue to plague the South African society. May, et al asserted that

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in 1993 '50% of the population could be considered poor and that the gap between rich and poor was among the largest in the world' (May, 2000: xiii). Classified as an upper middle-income country, yet 50% of South Africa's population occupy the poorest 40% of households and 27% of the population, referred to as 'ultra-poor' occupy the poorest 20% households. In real terms, the 10 million 'ultra-poor' are those who earn less than US$1 per day.

The democratic government inherited a society in which the rates of illiteracy among black adults are alarming. It is difficult to determine accurately South Africa's rate of illiteracy as the statistics indicate different rates of illiteracy among adults. Although there are differences in the statistics, they provide, at the very least, an estimate of the rate of illiteracy among adults. Using seven years of schooling, taken as a crude indicator of functional literacy, Aitchison et al analysed the statistics as follows. The 1995 October Household Survey shows that 12.2 million have had less than grade 9; 7.4 million have had less than grade 7; and 2.9 million have had no schooling (Aitchison, 2000: 16).

By comparison, 1996 General Population Census indicates that 13.2 million have had less than grade 9; 8.5 million have had less than grade 7; and 4.2 million have had no schooling at all (Aitchison et al, 2000: 16). An analysis of the statistics provided by Statistics South Africa shows that 64% of adults who are unemployed, have had no education (Aitchison et al, 2000: 21). These statistics seem to suggest a significant correlation between unemployment and illiteracy. As the unemployed and the illiterate are usually among the poorest in a society, it can be assumed that illiteracy is also an indicator of poverty. Given this scenario, it would seem that an intervention through adult basic education and training could in effect, address problems of unemployment and poverty and contribute to redressing socio-political and economic inequality.

The insurgence of neo-liberalism

During the 1970s the emergence of the New Right in the North resurrected 18th century liberalism which has become known as neo-liberalism. Prompted by the advent of neo-liberalism, countries in the North witnessed a transition from welfare statism, associated with the ideas of James Maynard Keynes to neo-liberalism, as an expression of the ideas of Milton Friedman. The assertion is made that Friedman's ideas, which have become an intellectual pillar of neo-liberalism, is an expression of Adam Smith's theses of the spontaneous order of the market. Predominantly promoted by the New Right, the World Bank and the IMF, Smith's ideas have become the intellectual mainstay of neo-liberalism and neo-liberal development policies (Preston, 1996: 251-269).

As South Africa emerged from years of isolation and began to integrate itself into the global political-economy in the early 1990s, it was caught in the maelstrom of the global shift in the North from liberal-democratic welfare state compromise to neo-liberalism, which had begun in the 1970s. However, this was also a time when governments and international agencies of the North were exporting neo-liberalism to countries of the South as prescriptions for their socio-political and economic problems (Preston, 1996: 255). In promoting the liberalisation of markets through the removal of trade barriers such as trade tariffs, neo-liberalism promises high prospects for economic prosperity and recovery for countries in the South (Preston, 1996: 259-260). In its dissemination in the North and from the North to the South, neo-liberalism has become globalised.

Development policies, neo-liberalism and social transformation

The emergence of the South African government's development policies over the last six years demonstrates a gradual shift in emphasis on social transformation to neo-liberalism, reflecting the pervasion of the latter. The early signs of the government's shift were evident in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (Office of the President(a), 1994). The White Paper promotes

reconstruction and development as 'a strategy for fundamental social transformation', yet some critics argue that neo-liberal elements are also evident in this policy (Adelzadeh, 1996: 66). Following their arguments, the assertion is made that the White Paper simultaneously promotes social transformation and neo-liberalism. The progressive shift from social transformation to neo-liberalism, as seen in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, was reinforced by the government's adoption of its macro-economic policy, *'Growth, Employment and Redistribution'* (Adelzadeh, 1996: 67).

In the evolution of the government's development policies, notions of social transformation and neo-liberalism have been fore-grounded. The notion of social transformation in South Africa is complex and evokes different meanings. The history of the struggles against apartheid and quests for democracy, demonstrates that the notion of social transformation predates the democratic elections. As South Africa emerged from the perils of apartheid at the beginning of the 1990s, radical social transformation was touted by many political activists. The nationalisation of mines and industries, redistribution of wealth; redistribution of income; free education and job creation were proposed as radical solutions to South Africa's deeply-entrenched political and economic inequalities. However, as events have unfolded since the early 1990s, and particularly since the democratic elections, social transformation has been associated with a range of different political and economic agendas. As a context-bound notion, social transformation assumes different meanings in different policy documents.

The government's development policies have given particular meaning and context to the notion of social transformation. The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development simultaneously associates social transformation with building a democratic, non-racial, non-sexist society; and building the economy, as prescribed by neo-liberal macro-economic policies. Similarly, the shift towards neo-liberalism, exemplified in the adoption of the macro-economic strategy, has rendered new perspectives on the notion of social transformation as such, and in its relation to neo-liberalism. For the purposes of this analysis, social transformation is distinguished from the neo-liberal, macro-economic elements in the contexts of the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development and the macro-economic strategy 'Growth, Employment and Redistribution' (Department of Finance, 1996).

The notion of social transformation refers to political and economic transformation which has, among others, the following objectives: redressing apartheid political and economic inequalities through meeting basic needs; poverty eradication; democratisation; redistribution and securing human rights. In contrast, neo-liberalism is directly associated with economic restructuring, global competitiveness, foreign investment and fiscal discipline. Although these neo-liberal elements feature in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, they dominate the government's macro-economic strategy, 'Growth, Employment and Redistribution'. While the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development contains elements of social transformation and neo-liberalism, there is no apparent, conceptual or other, relationship between social transformation and neo-liberalism. The development policies of the past six years have however, prompted the advent of a relationship between social transformation and neo-liberal development.

As events have taken their course, the government has linked its Reconstruction and Development Programme to its macro-economic strategy arguing macro-economic growth as a means to finance the transformational objectives, spelt out in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (Department of Finance, 1996:1). In this regard, the government asserts that, 'in the context of this integrated economic strategy, we can successfully confront the related challenges of meeting basic needs, developing human resources, increasing participation in the democratic institutions of civil society and implementing the RDP in all its facets' (Department of Finance, 1996:1). In this way, the government has attempted to forge a relationship between social transformation and neo-liberal development.

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In this seemingly contingent relationship, neo-liberal development, as in economic restructuring, economic growth, global competitiveness, foreign investment and fiscal discipline has been promoted as a pre-requisite for social transformation such as redressing apartheid political and inequalities; meeting basic needs; redistribution; democratisation; and human rights. This strategy seems to resemble the classical 'trickle-down' approach. Despite the potentially tangential nature of the relationship between the government's goals of social transformation, described in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development and its neo-liberal macro-economic strategy, the notions of social transformation and neo-liberalism are fairly distinct.

To reiterate, social transformation, as it has been used here, is aimed at redressing apartheid political and economic inequalities, meeting basic needs, poverty eradication; redistribution, democratisation and human rights. Neo-liberalism is the philosophy underpinning neo-liberal development, which is primarily aimed at stimulating foreign investment, economic growth, global trade and global competition. Neo-liberal development is therefore not specifically aimed at social transformation. If neo-liberal development is exclusively directed at generating economic growth, creating conditions favourable for foreign investment and competition, then it seems that its contribution to social transformation is left to chance. If social transformation occurs through the gains of neo-liberal development, it would merely be fortuitous. While arguing that social transformation and neo-liberalism are distinguishable, it is my contention that these notions interact dynamically in the context of South Africa's political economy. The tensions and dilemmas undergirding the government's simultaneous commitments to social transformation and neo-liberalism are illuminated by the debates concerning redistribution as such, and in relation to the roles of the government and the market.

The government, the market, redistribution: The neo-liberal and social focus

As the government's development policies have evolved, the tensions and contradictions between social transformation and neo-liberalism have become apparent, particularly in relation to re-dressing political and economic inequalities. Here the major proposition is that redressing political and economic inequalities requires redistribution. As the debates illustrate, redistribution is not monolithic and the tensions, contradictions and dilemmas between the different approaches to redistribution lie at the heart of the dynamics between social transformation and neo-liberalism. The differences between the role of government and the role of the market in redistribution, reflected in the different approaches to redistribution, are particularly pertinent. The tensions between these different approaches are acknowledged, but little attempt is made to address these. Instead, the arguments about the relationship between neo-liberalism and social transformation are located in the context of the tensions and dilemmas among the different approaches to redistribution.

The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development focuses some attention on redistribution, by committing the redistribution of resources to redress inherited inequalities; redistribution through the provision of basic services; and a more equitable distribution of the benefits of growth (Office of the President, 1994: 6). The government's macro-economic strategy makes a reference to the 'redistribution of income and opportunities in favour of the poor' (Department of Finance, 1996: 1). Despite the differences between the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development and the macro-economic strategy, both policies link redistribution to economic growth.

Hence, the conceptualisation of the relationship between redistribution and economic growth is critical. Although complex, contentious and somewhat inconclusive, the academic debates on redistribution and growth provide some perspective (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 175-187) (Abedian and Biggs, 1998: 90-92, 437-38). Wittenberg traced some debates concerning redistribution, summarised as follows (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 175-191).

At the beginning of the 1990s the African National Congress (ANC), acknowledging the deep economic inequalities caused by apartheid, promoted extensive government intervention for the reconstruction of the society (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 176). This position was further developed by the Macro-Economic Research Group (MERG). At that time the ANC promoted the model of 'growth through redistribution' (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 176) which promotes redistribution as a pre-requisite for growth. The ANC's position drew criticism from several prominent economic analysts, which is well-documented in the literature (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 175-191). According to Wittenberg, Nattrass opposed the MERG proposals, arguing a liberal position and, Fine, Sender and Kaplinsky in turn, opposed her (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 176-177). Amidst the controversial debates concerning redistribution, the democratic government, soon after the democratic elections in 1994, published a White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, which demonstrated a shift towards 'redistribution through growth'.

The macro-economic strategy, adopted by the government in 1996, confirmed the government's endorsement of 'redistribution through growth', commonly promoted by neo-liberal proponents, such as the World Bank and the IMF. In the current situation, the neo-liberal position, 'redistribution through growth' which promotes redistribution through economic growth, occupies the dominant position.

As mentioned earlier, the government, in its White Paper on Reconstruction and Development and its macro-economic strategy links redistribution to growth, conforming to the dominant trend in the academic debates. Hence, the debates concerning economic growth are critical. Generally speaking, neo-liberal, macro-economic policies advocate the liberalisation of markets and foreign investment as recipes for economic growth. At the same time, the South African government's neo-liberal, macro-economic strategy promotes the redistribution of macro-economic gains through economic growth, as a pre-requisite for social transformation.

Hence a neo-liberal notion of redistribution, which presupposes economic growth, is posed as a pre-requisite for social transformation and as a form of social transformation as such. If social transformation is dependent on economic growth, and the South African economy fails to generate economic growth, then it seems that social transformation cannot occur. Taking the argument further, if such economic growth is determined largely by foreign investment and liberalisation of markets, then it seems that social transformation is reliant on and determined by these factors. The extent to which redistribution through economic growth can contribute to social transformation is also questionable. The government's macro-economic strategy, projects 'redistribution through growth' as a means to address social transformation, through redressing a range of socio-political and economic inequalities. However, it seems that redistribution, which is informed by a neo-liberal, macro-economic framework, would be restricted to economic redistribution such as the creation of employment opportunities. Social transformation, as it is linked to economic growth, may therefore be reduced to economic redistribution or phrased differently, redistribution in the economic sphere. If so, then these neo-liberal forms of redistribution, which are not specifically directed to the redress of social inequalities such as education, health and housing, would ostensibly not contribute to such broader social transformation.

In essence, the proponents of neo-liberalism favour the role of the market in redistribution over the role of government. Although neo-liberalism promotes a central role of the market in redistribution, the assertion is that this does not neccessarily exclude a role for government in redistribution. Proposing that the role of the government is critical in effecting social transformation through redistribution, brings into question the changing conceptions of the role of government.

The adoption of the neo-liberal, macro-economic strategy has challenged the conception of a strong,

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interventionist government implied in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development. The White Paper represents a Keynesian conception of an interventionist government, particularly in relation to social transformation (Adelzadeh, 1996: 66). The government's shift in focus from the government's White Paper on Reconstruction and Development to its neo-liberal macro-economic strategy, reflects a shift from a Keynesian perspective to a neo-liberal perspective on the role of government. These shifts to neo-liberal development, propelled by the government's adoption of the macro-economic strategy, have prompted a neo-liberal notion of a low-key government. Despite the predominance of the neo-liberal position, the contention is that the scale of redressing South Africa's socio-political and economic inequalities, warrants an interventionist government. Promoting the role of government in redistribution necessitates an interventionist government.

The different perspectives on the role of the government and the role of the market in respect of redistribution, create tensions in the relationship between social transformation and neo-liberalism. These differing positions create tensions and dilemmas when the market is projected as the dominant force to generate economic growth and to effect social transformation. The reality is that the market is primarily concerned with redistribution in the economy and it is possible that redistribution could occur through, for example, job creation, stimulated by economic growth. This however is dependent on the generation of economic growth through foreign investment. Notwithstanding, it is possible that redistribution in the economic sphere, could contribute to redressing broader social inequalities, such as those in education and health. However, few successes of such 'trickle-down' have been recorded.

While it is acknowledged that the market has a central role in respect of redistribution in the economy, it is argued that this role should not necessarily undermine the role of government in redistribution. Therefore it is possible that these roles could be complementary. The role of government in redistribution however, raises questions about the availability of resources. The government's macro-economic strategy promotes foreign investment as a potential means of generating growth, and through taxation, government revenue, which could be deployed for the provision of social services. As foreign investment, prescribed by these neo-liberal, macro-economic policies has not yielded the projected economic growth, the means for generating such growth and revenue, have been questioned. Therefore it seems that other means of stimulating economic growth and generating government revenue should be sought for the purposes of such redistribution which would redress social, political and economic inequalities. The creative search for such alternatives represent the crossroads which confronts the South African society at present.

The tensions and dilemmas underlying the role of government and the market, manifested in the relationship between neo-liberalism and social transformation are reflected in the adult education and training policies. However, the tensions and dilemmas underpinning the role of government and the market in redistribution, are not reflected in the government's adult education and training policies, yet these have significant implications for redressing inequalities in adult education and training.

Adult education and training: Tension between social transformation & neo-liberalism

The contention that the adult education and training imperatives in South Africa warrant government intervention through redistribution, constitutes the essence of the central argument. The government's adult education and training policies have been cast in the framework of its development policies, yet there is an asynchrony between the latter and the adult education and training policies. Elements of growth and redistribution feature in the government's development policies and although absent in the adult education and training policies, have significant implications for redressing inequalities in the sphere of adult education and training.

As argued earlier, the roles of the market and the government in relation to redistribution and growth,

create tensions and dilemmas in the relationship between neo-liberalism and social transformation. Proposing that the roles of the market and government in relation to redistribution and growth have a bearing on redressing adult education and training inequalities, the following discussions locate the government's adult education and training policies in the context of the above-mentioned tensions and dilemmas.

Reflective of its development policies, the government's adult education and training policies simultaneously promote social transformation and neo-liberalism. Reflecting the vision and goals of the government's White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, the Policy on Adult Basic Education and Training promotes adult basic education and training as a vehicle for social transformation, that is, to redress apartheid inequalities, build democracy and secure human rights (Department of Education (a), 1997: 9). At the same time, the Policy projects adult basic education and training as a foundation for economic growth (Department of Education (a), 1997: 9). The government's Green Paper, 'Skills Development Strategy for South Africa', reflecting the goals of the macro-economic strategy, primarily promotes skills development as a vehicle to increase economic growth, employment growth and productivity (Department of Labour, 1997: 1-2).

Arguments that the redress of socio-political and economic inequalities cannot be left to neo-liberal market forces and that government intervention, through redistribution, are critical in redressing inequalities. As argued earlier, neo-liberal development policies promote the market as the primary vehicle for economic growth and redistribution. While not necessarily disputing the latter, an argument is also made for a role for government in redistribution and stimulating economic growth, through investment in education. In the academic debates there is considerable opposition to the promotion of government's redistribution of resources for social services without linking redistribution to economic growth (Wittenberg in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 182-184).

Concerned with redistribution and redressing social inequality, Harris developed arguments which link redistribution and growth to reducing social inequality (Harris in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 93-95). Following Harris, two arguments are made, firstly, that government can stimulate economic growth by redistributing resources through investment in education, and secondly, that government investment in education infrastructure, more specifically, adult education, can contribute to social transformation. Although Harris links redistribution to redressing social inequality, he concurs that redistribution should be linked to growth, arguing that 'significant redistribution, which reduces poverty, requires growth; if national income grew less than population, redistribution would not prevent worsening poverty for some' (Harris in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 93). However, he proposes that economic growth can be achieved through redistribution by different kinds of investment, including that of education. Investment in social and economic infrastructure, according to Harris, may reduce inequality in the same way that investment in mass education, housing and health may promote growth and reduce inequality (Harris in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 94).

In this way, government's redistribution of resources through investment in educational infrastructure and mass education, may simultaneously promote economic growth and reduce inequality (Harris in Michie and Padayachee, 1997: 95). Therefore the argument is made for redistribution through investment in adult education and training, not only for the purpose of generating economic growth, but also to reduce social inequality. Harris's proposition that economic growth can be stimulated by redistributing resources through investment in education, seems to resonate with the notion of human capital investment. But the argument here, unlike the classical human capital theories, is that the gains of investing in human capital lie beyond economic returns.

The rationale for redistributing resources through investment in adult education and training, is not only for the purpose of investing in human capital for economic growth, but also to develop the society's social capital (incorporating political, cultural and human capital), as a means of redressing socio-political and economic inequalities. Redistribution through adult education and training, as a means to develop South Africa's social capital of redressing political and economic inequalities, however, cannot be viewed in isolation of redressing other political and economic inequalities such as unemployment, homelessness and poverty.

Adult education and training: Implications for social transformation and neo-liberalism

The following questions are posed: Given the nature of the government's adult education and training policies, what potential is embedded in the adult education and training policies to effect social transformation through adult education and training? In the light of the developments over the past five years, what kinds of government intervention, through the redistribution of resources, has occurred and how have these impacted the contribution of adult education and training in social transformation?

In the sphere of adult education and training, broadly speaking, the government has formulated three major policies, The Policy on Adult Basic Education and Training (Department of Education(a), 1998); the Skills Development Act (Office of the President, 1998); and the Adult General Education and Training Bill (Office of the President, 2000). The policies on Adult Basic Education and Training mainly govern the adult basic education and training initiatives of the Department of Education, while the Skills Development Act governs the skills development initiatives of the Department of Labour in relation to workplace adult education and training.

The Skills Development Act proposes an elaborate system for skills development in South Africa, elevating workplace adult education and training to a position of significance. This Act, as an expression of the government's neo-liberal, macro-economic policies, is specifically directed at improving productivity in the workplace; to improve the competitiveness of employers; to increase the levels of investment in education and training in the labour market and to improve the return on that investment (Office of the President, 1998: 8). Places of employment such as companies, government departments, hospitals and universities are regarded as the primary source of funding for such training. For this purpose, the Department of Labour has established a National Skills Fund to which such institutions are legally obliged to contribute. It is envisaged that this Fund would resource skills development in the workplace. Although the Department of Labour initiative can be regarded as a government intervention in redistributing company profits, in particular instances, this Fund will serve the needs of employees in positions of employment.

While it is possible that these developments, prompted and reflective of neo-liberalism, may contribute to social transformation in the workplace, it cannot be assumed that such transformation is an inherent objective of neo-liberal development. To re-iterate, neo-liberal development is narrowly aimed at competition in global markets, productivity and generating economic growth.

Some contradictions are however evident, especially in relation to the role of government in relation to skills development. Although the government's neo-liberal macro-economic policy promotes a low key role of government in the economy, the role of the government, through the Department of Labour's initiatives in workplace skills development, reflects the contrary. A proposition is made that the government's initiatives in relation to workplace skills development, could be regarded as government intervention and a form of redistribution. The substantiation that these initiatives almost exclusively address skills development in the workplace, lends caution. To add, this kind of redistribution, in the form of formulating policies and developing systems for skills development, is solely directed toward the needs

of the economy. While criticising the neo-liberal orientation of the government's development policies, there is also an acknowledgement that these initiatives may firstly, address the adult basic education and training needs of employees in the workplace and secondly, contribute to poverty eradication among workers classified as poor. The government's initiatives in the economy however, do not preclude government intervention in addressing the adult education and training needs of the 64% of the unemployed population who have had no education (Aitchison et al, 2000: 21).

Arguing that the real challenges of fundamental social transformation are located among the poor and unemployed, the choices between addressing the adult education and training needs of the employed as opposed to the unemployed, create tensions and dilemmas between the challenges of social transformation and the demands of neo-liberalism. On a small scale, the government's responses to the employment needs of the unemployed are reflected in the goals of the macro-economic strategy through promoting the growth of small, micro and medium enterprises and agricultural development for the creation of employment especially among disadvantaged people. However, there are dissonances in the skills development policies.

On the one hand, the Green Paper 'Skills Development Strategy for Employment and Economic Growth in South Africa' alludes to small, micro and medium enterprises (Department of Labour, 1997: 6). On the other hand, the superseding Skills Development Act (Office of the President, 1998), makes no such reference. As these government's initiatives in skills development are recent, it is difficult to say whether these will dominate the government's efforts in redressing, broadly speaking, adult education and training inequalities. Although these current developments may indicate the emerging dominance of market-funded and market-driven adult education and training, it is too early for such assessment. It is a common criticism that investment in adult education and training opportunities for the unemployed does not yield high economic rates of return. Some economic analysts argue that as investment in adult education and training for the unemployed does not contribute directly to economic growth, such investment, as a form of redistribution, is a waste. Viewing investment merely in terms of economic returns and economic growth, is a rather narrow and reductionist way of viewing investment in adult education and training as the latter can contribute to the development of the society's social capital and the social fabric upon which political, economic and cultural life is premised.

The government's policies on adult basic education and training (ABET) and its provision since the election of the democratic government in 1994 demonstrates a weak commitment to addressing the high levels of illiteracy, which are highest among black people. Provision of adult basic education and training (ABET) through its (PALCs) represent the Department of Education's main efforts in adult education and training, provincially and nationally. The adult basic education and training policies govern mainly the provision of adult basic education and training by the government through their (PALCs). The learners in these PALCs include employed; self-employed and unemployed people. The unemployed learners, according to the analysis of May, Woolard and Klasen, can be classified as poor and ultra-poor (May, 2000: 38-39). Although the curriculum in the PALCs focuses primarily on the educational aspects of adult basic education and training, emphasising the learning areas prescribed for schools in Curriculum 2005, the Department of Education has also incorporated two elective learning areas 'Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises' and 'Agricultural Development' to accommodate for the training component of adult basic education and training.

In respect of redressing the inequalities in the rates of literacy, contradictory roles of government are evident in the policies. The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development promotes an interventionist government to lead the Reconstruction and Development Programme's initiatives to effect social transformation. This interventionist role in redressing illiteracy was exemplified in the White Paper which

promoted the National Literacy Programme as a lead project, and a literacy campaign, referred to as the Ithuteng Campaign. This was re-inforced by the conception of a low-key role of government in adult basic education and training, implicit in the government's Policy on Adult Basic Education and Training. Although this Policy was conceptualised in the framework of the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, it promotes a low key role for the government in adult basic education and training, mainly in partnership with business and nongovernment organisations.

The role of government in redressing adult basic education and training inequalities was questioned when it dedicated no resources for the Campaign, and named international agencies as a source funding (Office of the President, 1994:46). Therefore it is clear that the government's ostensible interventionist role in adult basic education and training, as indicated in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, was not matched by the necessary budgetary commitment. Since 1994 the government's national and provincial budgets for adult basic education and training have been miniscule, reaching an estimated minority of 190,000 potential adult learners (Aitchison, 2000: xiv). These governments' budgets, particularly those of the provincial governments, are spent on providing adult basic education and training through their public adult learning centres. Recent initiatives have emerged under the leadership of the Minister of Education.

The South African National Literacy Initiative (SANLI) was announced on the 24 June 2000 and a National Literacy Agency (NLA) has been established to drive a Literacy Campaign under the auspicies of SANLI. The Campaign which will be launched in March 2001, intends targetting 500,000 adult learners through 50 000 educators in 10 000 teaching and learning sites throughout the country. As 'volunteers are central to the model and philosophy of the Initiative' (Western Cape ABET Forum, 2000: 15), it appears that government will allocate few resources for this Campaign. The low key role of government, embodied in the ABET policies, combined with the government's inadequate distribution of resources for adult basic education and training, demonstrates a withdrawal from the interventionist position, conveyed in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development.

The retreat of government from an interventionist role in redressing the high rates of illiteracy among black people, demonstrates a lack of commitment to social transformation, aimed at redressing social, political and economic inequalities. This withdrawal also suggests a shift from engaging adult basic education and training as a foundation for economic growth, as promoted by the Policy on Adult Basic Education and Training. Given the orientation of the policies and the developments in adult basic education and training since the election of the democratic government in 1994, it seems that government does not regard the redress of adult basic education and training inequalities a priority. These developments also seem to indicate that the government does not consider an investment of resources in adult basic education and training a significant means through which redistribution can take place and economic growth can be stimulated, nor a vehicle for redressing the broader social inequalities.

Conclusions

The thrust of this chapter was centred around two main arguments, firstly that redressing adult education and training inequalities contributes to redressing broader socio-political and economic inequalities; that redressing adult education and training inequalities must be linked to redressing broader socio-political and economic inequalities. The central assertion was that the extent of the socio-political and economic inequalities in South Africa warrants forms of redistribution which makes available resources to the poorest sectors of society for education, adult education, health, welfare and housing. The arguments showed that neo-liberalism, with its emphasis on the role of the market, has undermined the role of government in effecting social transformation through redistribution. The government's inadequate representation of redistribution in its development policies and it adult education and training policies

were highlighted. The omission, in the adult education and training policies, of government's role in respect of redistribution; the inadequate redistribution of resources for skills development and adult basic education and training, demonstrate government's neglect to prioritise adult education and training and to acknowledge it as a significant means to redress broader socio-political and economic inequalities.

Opposing the dominant trends in the debates, yet not disputing the role of the market in redistribution, a proposition was made for a role for government in redistributing resources for adult education and training as means to stimulate economic growth and reduce social inequality. Notwithstanding, generating the resources for this purpose poses major challenges for the South African government. Will the government have to reform its taxation mechanisms or reform its budget? A simple statement concludes this chapter, 'unless government redistributes resources to redress the adult education and training inequalities among the poor and the unemployed, adult education and training will be limited in its contribution to transformation of the broader society'.

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Chapter 16

THE DEVELOPMENT AND PROVISION OF ADULT EDUCATION AND LITERACY IN ZAMBIA

Derek C. Mulenga

Introduction

This chapter examines the development and provision of adult education in Zambia. The purpose is to provide a focussed discussion of the major historical developments, the main actors involved and the major changes or shifts in adult education and adult literacy policy. The analysis draws on relevant documents as well as interviews conducted with several key actors involved in adult education and literacy in Zambia between November 1995 and October 1996.

The history of adult education and literacy can be divided into four main periods. Although these periods are arbitrary, they roughly conform to the main historical periods in the development of education in Zambia. These periods are: the first period, from the pre-colonial times to the end of the World War II in 1945, the second period from 1946 to 1963, the third period from 1964 to 1977 and the fourth period from 1978 to the present.

The pre-colonial period to 1945

During the pre-colonial era, there were various forms of education for adults whose main purposes were to fit individuals into society, and promote social stability and continuity (Jolly, 1969). Individuals learned skills, knowledge and attitudes that enabled them to play the required social roles. Special emphasis was placed on learning skills to support the production of goods and services for subsistence and for petty trade.

The most important characteristic of pre-colonial adult education was that its content was diverse. It included history and folklore, vocational skill, moral and religious instruction, sex and family education, military training and dance and music. It reflected the existing political, social and economic life of the people. It was both informal and nonformal. Another feature was that the participants learned primarily by listening, watching and doing (Busia, 1968).

During this period, a wide range of institutions provided adult education. One institution that was common among ethnic groups was the initiation of young people into adulthood. The young people on the verge of adulthood went through a form of "social-function" training that prepared them for their place in the community. They were isolated for the period during which instruction was given. The instructors were chosen because of their expertise and experience. The content of instruction was wide ranging. In some ethnic groups, such as the Luvale of North Western province, the initiation for boys was associated with circumcision.

Apprenticeship schemes were another form of adult education provided. There were numerous guilds of blacksmiths, weavers, carvers, hunters, fishermen and medicine doctors that provided instruction for adults. These schemes extended over long periods of time. The knowledge and skills imparted were closely guarded.

Musicians also played an important role in the education of adults. For example, among the Bemba people, court musicians through song and praise, conveyed to the people, history, genealogy, morals and cultural

norms (Jolly, 1969). The evening sessions of story telling and riddle posing were also an important source of education for both young and older adults. Finally, military establishments also provided instruction in military matters to adult males. Instruction was geared toward the defence of the people and the preparation for war.

Many of these institutions did not survive the efforts of the missionaries and colonial governments to educate the Africans out of their culture (Busia, 1968). The invasion of Western technology, ideas and institutions rapidly changed the nature and organization of indigenous forms of adult education. Slowly, the churches and missionaries took over the control of the education of adults. Later on, the colonial government and voluntary organizations became involved in the provision of literacy and adult education.

During the period of British South African rule (1890 to 1923), the field of adult education was dominated by activities of the Christian missionaries. The first Western institutions of adult education in Northern Rhodesia were village schools established by Christian churches and missions. These villages, also known as catechetical centres, emphasized religious instruction and literacy. The centres also taught crafts, simple agriculture, personal hygiene and environmental sanitation.

In 1923, the Conference of Mission Societies in Great Britain and Ireland recommended that mission education in Africa should aim at improving the material and moral life of the community, train leaders, and respond to the needs of the urban community (Mulenga, 1991). Another recommendation made by the Conference was the establishment of an education office in the Colonial Office.

As a result of this recommendation and the influence of the Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1924, the Colonial Office set up an Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British colonies in Africa. One of the key recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Commission was that the government should assist in the financing of mission education in the form of grant-in-aids. It also recommended the allocation of funds for the employment of African visiting teachers to supervise village schools (Ragsdale, 1986).

In 1925, the British Colonial Office issued a memorandum of the recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Native Education. The memorandum suggested that curriculum should be tailored to the African environment and has more emphasis on technical and vocation training. One important result of the memorandum was the subsequent establishment of a separate Department of African Education in 1930.

Based on the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Commission, the Jeanes School was founded at Mazabuka in 1929. The Jeanes School was founded with an initial grant from Anne Jeane, a rich American Quaker. However, the Beit Railway Trust and the Carnegie Corporation also provided funding. The main purpose of the Jeanes School was to train African teachers to supervise village schools (Mwanakatwe, 1974). The school emphasized the philosophy of community uplifting aimed at the improvement of the conditions of living of the entire community. Teachers were employed as agents of community improvement.

In a memorandum of 1935, the Advisory Committee on Native Education argued that there was a link between education and development. The central theme of the memorandum was education for all, children and adults. The committee stressed that the school should play a key role in community development (Snelson, 1974). Although emphasis was placed on the provision of adult education, the colonial government failed to implement the proposals because of lack of funds.

In 1941, the government set up a radio station in Lusaka (Nyirenda, 1988). Although the main purpose of

the radio was to provide information and propaganda about the progress of World War II, it later became a useful media for literacy and adult education programs. In 1943, the Colonial Office published a White Paper on Mass Education in African Society. The Paper recommended a complete system of education catering for both children and adults. The Paper was widely discussed in Northern Rhodesia and it was decided to tackle the problem of illiteracy among adults as the first and practical step toward mass education (Hay, 1947).

The Northern Rhodesia government provided funds for an experiment in adult literacy work to be initiated at Mindolo Mine Compound on the Copperbelt. Mrs Hope Hay, the wife of the London Missionary Society's representative on the United Missions Teams at Mindolo Ecumenical Centre was asked to conduct the experiment.

The experiment began officially in January 1945. Mrs Hay and her team started with a training needs survey. The survey revealed that out of 3692 Mindolo residents, 2347 were illiterate, and of the 950 women, 902 were illiterate (Snelson, 1970). Mrs Hay mounted the literacy program in a number of Copperbelt towns.

The post world War II Era from1946 to 1963

By 1946, Mrs Hay and a team of literacy teachers successfully taught a total of 10,837 miners and their wives how to do the three Rs, reading, writing and arithmetic (Snelson, 1974). In 1947, Mrs Hay published the outcome of her literacy experiments in a book entitled *Northern Rhodesia learns to read*. The book was well received in literacy circles in Africa.

In 1948, Frank Laubach, the architect of the Laubach Method of "each one teach one" visited Northern Rhodesia. During his stay, Laubach conducted training sessions for Jeanes at Mindolo, and trained some students from Munali Secondary School (Snelson, 1974).

In 1954, the government appointed George Hardcastle as the first adult education officer (Mulenga, 1991). Hardcastle's appointment was significant because it signalled the government's formal recognition of adult education as an important component of the education sector. It also meant that the government would provide financial support for adult education and literacy. Hardcastle began to organize evening classes for adults and a "badge scheme" for women. Evening classes were continuing education classes designed for adults pursuing primary and secondary education. The badge scheme for women emphasized domestic science and home economics. Participants earned badges for their achievements in the courses. There was a huge demand for evening classes, particularly along the line of rail. Two years after Hardcastle took office, enrolment in evening classes sponsored by the government reached 500 (Northern Rhodesia Government, 1957).

Apart from the government, church and voluntary organizations joined in the provision of evening classes. Two giant mining companies, Anglo American Corporation and Roan Selection Trust also started providing evening classes. In 1960, the mining companies set up the Mines Education Trust Fund. The Fund provided monies for the establishment and operation of schools for miners' children and adult education programs for miners. Although most of the adult classes offered continuing education courses, there were also some human resource development programs for employees at all levels. By 1963, the enrolment in the programs run by the mining companies reached record levels (Mwanakatwe, 1968).

In 1960, a library service was established with the financial assistance of the Ford Foundation (Mwanakatwe, 1968). The service coordinated the activities of all library centres, provincial libraries and mobile libraries. Although the services catered more for the white settlers and miners along the line of

rail, it increasingly became a useful support resource for the education of the growing African adult population.

In late 1963, the government initiated a scheme to set up correspondence education. The move was triggered by three significant reports that dealt with the issue of correspondence education. First, the Sheath Report[1] recommended that correspondence secondary education should be provided at minimum cost to the student. The report was not acted upon immediately partly because the colonial government was preparing to hand over the reigns of political power to the African people. Second, the Lockwood Report, among other things, recommended that correspondence education be provided at the proposed University of Zambia. Third, the report of the UNESCO planning mission recommended that the Ministry of Education should establish a national correspondence school to provide free instruction at secondary education level. Consequently, a pilot scheme was set up in May 1964.

The UNESCO mission also made a number of recommendations concerning adult literacy. First, it recommended literacy in English. Second, it recommended a six-month literacy course for literacy teachers. Third, it recommended that two ministries, community development and general education should implement literacy. The latter would provide literacy in English as an adult education program while the former was to implement functional literacy related to hygiene, agriculture and community development. These recommendations of the UNESCO mission were wide in scope but among senior government officials, literacy was not taken seriously (Mwanakatwe, 1968, p. 150).

From political independence to Educational Reforms, 1964 to 1977

This period was marked by a rapid increase in the number of adult education and literacy programs and institutions. The growth was spurred by relative economic prosperity resulting from high copper production and earnings. It was influenced by a strong government policy emphasis on the Zambianization of manpower in both the civil service and the copper mining industry. As a result, the government embarked on a program of accelerated expansion of both education provision at all levels, and education and training to meet the short fall in manpower requirements. Both the Transitional and the First National Development Plans reflected these policy emphases.

In the following sections, I begin with a discussion the developments in adult literacy work. This is then followed a discussion of major developments in adult continuing education.

Developments in adult literacy

At the time of political independence, there were over one million adults who were not able to read and write. Adult illiteracy was estimated at 61% (Mwanakatwe, 1968, p. 151). The government saw this high illiteracy rate as an obstacle to economic development.

In 1966, the government launched the Basic Literacy Program. Sixteen literacy supervisors and eight literacy officers were trained to run the program in the eight provinces. Over 1,300 local volunteers were drawn from secondary school pupils. Volunteer personnel to assist in the Program were also recruited from the United Kingdom and Canada (Mwanakatwe, 1968). Six primers entitled *umwenge* (meaning "light") were used in the Program.

The results of the Program were not encouraging. Among the problems identified were: lack of supervision, lack of interest among literacy officers, lack of transport, the contents of the primers had little connection with the social context and lack of an effective delivery system (Mulenga, 1991). In 1968, the Program was evaluated and it was recommended that it should be replaced with a functional literacy program.

In 1970, functional literacy was introduced initially in two provinces as a pilot project but it was later extended to all the provinces. The focus was on growing more maize, the staple of Zambia. The program had two stages. Stage one lasted eight months and had a theoretical emphasis with some demonstrations on the use of seeds and application of fertilizer. Stage two was field based for those who passed the test at stage one. Literacy radio was introduced to supplement teaching at stage two.

The program experienced several programs (Imakando, 1985; Mulenga, 1991). First, although the program covered a large geographical area, it was small in terms of enrolments. The annual enrolments were only between 1,450 and 4,400. Second, budgetary allocations to the program were considerably reduced over time from ZK250, 000 in 1974 to ZK35, 000 in 1985. This reduction in budgetary allocation led to related problems of lack of inputs and resources (Imakando, 1985). Thus, despite the strong verbal support provided by numerous policy statements, the government's financial commitment to the eradication of illiteracy has consistently been small.

Other developments in adult education

The First National Development Plan's policy objective of expanding adult education provision became a turning point in the role of the government. Prior to political independence, the colonial and federal governments supplemented the efforts of the missionaries, churches, mines and voluntary organizations.

In 1973, the Adult Education Advisory Board was established by parliament to coordinate the work of various adult education agencies and advise the government on matters related to adult education. The Board was housed and funded by the Ministry of Education. Although the Board was a statutory body, it had no real power and control over the agencies and organizations it was supposed to coordinate. On the one hand, this was major weakness because it could not formulate and enforce policies. On the other hand, the lack of direct control made it easier for more organizations to get involved in adult education with little bureaucratic interference.

In addition to the Board, the Adult Education Association of Zambia (AEAZ) was formed in 1968. In its formative years, the AEAZ remained a marginal player in the field of adult education but starting in early 1970s, it increasingly played a key role in supporting the work of the Board. It also served as a clearinghouse for research and networking for individuals and groups interested in adult education. Later on, in the 1980s, the AEAZ became an active partner in the provision of a variety of adult continuing education programs through its district centres.

Meanwhile, the pilot scheme on correspondence education grew into a full-fledged national program (the National Correspondence College) based in Luanshya on the Copperbelt. Initially, the College only offered courses at junior secondary education level. However, starting in 1967, it started offering courses at the general certificate of education level (equivalent to the high school diploma).

The Correspondence College later started offering continuing education classes through an innovative scheme called Supervised Study Groups (SSGs). The SSGs were groups of 50 to 100 school dropouts who met to study under the guidance of an instructor. The main strength of the SSGs was that the groups often participated in deciding where and when classes were held.

Another major development during this period was the creation of the Department of Extra-Mural Studies (DEMS) at the newly established University of Zambia. Modelled on the British system, the DEMS offered a wide range of non-credit programs through a network of resident tutor centres in the provinces. The DEMS was also responsible for training adult educators. Initially, it offered a one-year certificate in adult education. Later on in the mid 1970s, with external funding from various sources, the DEMS offered

a two-year diploma in adult education.

At the same time, the Department of Correspondence was established at the University of Zambia in 1966. Based on the University of New England model in Australia, it offered distance education courses leading to undergraduate degrees in education, humanities and social sciences, and law.

A variety of other adult education programs mushroomed during this period. These included vocational education and training programs run by the government and voluntary organizations. The Department of Continuing Education (DCE) in Ministry of Education and other organizations also developed various skills training projects targeted at providing practical skills for school leavers.

In the late 1960s, workers education was introduced in labour movement when the Zambia Congress of Trade Unions created a Department of Workers Education. Funding for most of the workers education programs was provided by external agencies such as ILO. In 1974, the President Citizenship College was established to provide workers education, leadership training and political education.

Finally, both the 1976 and 1977 Education Reform proposals addressed the need for more coordinated efforts at promoting adult literacy. In particular, the draft statement recommended that the Ministry of Education should assume the responsibility for literacy education, and that an all-out campaign be launched to eradicate illiteracy in the shortest possible time (Ministry of Education, 1976). It also called for the establishment of the Continuing Education Advisory Board to provide more effective support to adult continuing education work in the country. However, there was no substantive policy on adult education that resulted from the Educational Reforms.

The post Reform Era, 1978 to the present

This period was characterized by a decline in the provision of adult education and literacy. The decline was mainly due to reductions in budgetary allocations to adult education brought about by severe economic crisis. At the same time, the period also witnessed the emergence of various voluntary organizations that provided adult skills training programs for unemployed youth, women and adults.

Several adult education programs offered by the government became victims of the financial squeeze. The Department of Continuing Education was forced to either close some centres or reduce its course offerings. Although the continuing education schools increased from five in 1979 to 12 in 1982, the enrolment dropped from 2,648 in 1977 to 2,173 in 1985 (Kelly, 1991a). On the other hand, notwithstanding the financial crisis faced by the Ministry of Education, enrolments for correspondence programs increased from about 21,000 in 1975 to 36,500 in 1985 (Mulenga, 1991). However, these figures can give a misleading impression since a large proportion of the enrolees were inactive.

University adult continuing education programs also suffered reductions in overall enrolments (Mwansa, 1985). For example, between 1975 and 1985, only 331 seminars were organized by the Department of Extension Studies and Conferences compared to over 500 seminars and conferences offered in the first decade of political independence (Mwansa, 1985). Similarly, enrolments in the certificate and diploma programs in adult education offered by the Department of Adult Education and In-Service Training at the University of Zambia declined by over 25 per cent (Mwansa, 1985).

Developments in Adult Literacy

In 1978, the ministries of education and health in collaboration with FAO and WHO introduced a health and nutrition education component into the ongoing functional literacy program. Initially, the pilot project was limited to three provinces, but in 1981, it was expanded to the rest of the country.

Apart from the government, there were a number of other major organizations that became involved in literacy. In 1987, the Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines started a functional literacy aimed at providing basic literacy skills and practical skills in health, nutrition, and agriculture (Mulenga, 1991). The Zambia Congress of Trade Unions and DANIDA started a three-year literacy project in 1987. The project was aimed at educating the rank and file of the trade union movement on the importance of literacy work. However, the project was never implemented as a full-fledged literacy program mainly because of lack of funds.

Several other organizations were also involved in adult literacy work. For example, the churches continued to promote literacy work through their evangelical programs. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees and Save the Children Fund started a literacy program in 1984 for the growing number of Angolan refugees in the Western and Northwestern provinces.

In 1984, the Zambian government formed a national committee to identify feasible strategies of eradicating illiteracy (Imakando, 1985). At the same time, the Women's Affair's Committee of UNIP created an inter-ministerial committee to examine the feasibility of launching a national literacy campaign. The proposal was sanctioned by UNIP Central Committee and passed on to the Ministry of Labour and Culture (which was then responsible for literacy) for implementation. However, due to lack of resources, the literacy campaign never took off.

Before we examine the main developments in the 1990s, it is important to note that the allocation to adult literacy present a dismal picture of lack of interest and lack of commitment that have no parallel in the formal education programmes. The small financial allocation that the adult literacy received at its onset in 1966 began, from 1970 onwards, to be whittled away year by year to the extent that today nothing remains but a nominal sum. Kelly (1990) states that the allocation for the adult literacy programme fell from K642,000 in 1970 to K12,6000 in 1989 (at 1985 Kwacha values). The erosion of provision for adult literacy meant that field activities had to be reduced and in consequence enrolments declined from 17,385 in 1970 to only 4,363 in 1989. This pathetic picture is made worse by the fact that efforts to build a supportive (post-literacy) environment for the newly literate members all but collapsed in the late 1980s.

Following the proclamation of 1990 as the International Literacy Year, a committee was set up to oversee activities to mark that year as well as plan other activities aimed at reducing illiteracy. The Ministry of Community Development with assistance from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) conducted a survey of adult literacy programmes in Zambia. On October 10th, 1990, the government launched the National Literacy Campaign. A month later, the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services created a National Literacy Campaign Unit (NLCU) to spearhead the literacy campaign. Subsequently, a National Literacy Campaign Committee was set up as the main policy advisory body on matters pertaining to literacy work.

The NLCU/Ministry of Community Development undertook three major activities in 1990. First, under a joint committee of the Ministry of Community Development and Curriculum Centre of the Ministry of Education, literacy materials were reviewed and revised. Second, the NCLU played an active role in the preparation of the Country Paper for the international Conference on Education-For-All held at Jomtien, Thailand. Third, training workshops for literacy instructors were conducted in all provinces to pave the way for a national literacy campaign.

In 1992, the government established the Zambia National Alliance for the Advancement of Literacy (ZAALIT). The main goal of ZAALIT was to design and implement a campaign to eradicate adult illiteracy. The campaign was aimed at "annually lowering the number of illiterates and reduce the rate to

12 per cent or less by year 2000 or eradicating it completely" (ZAALIT, 1994, p. 1). By 1993, ZAALIT had established over 1,000 classes with an enrolment of 25,243 students (ZAALIT, 1994). However, like the old functional literacy program, the ZAALIT campaign is plagued with lack of adequate funds and resources. For instance, only K130 million was allocated for ZAALIT activities in 1993.

In March 1991, the Ministries of Education and Community Development with assistance from United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Bank organized the National Conference on Education-for-All. Educationists, labour leaders, church representatives, politicians and donor agency representatives attended the Conference. Some of the recommendations arising from the Conference were: (a) asserting the political commitment to basic education as a human right; (b) narrowing the gap between formal and nonformal education; (c) nonformal education should be integrated into development projects and local activities; and (d) creating opportunities for basic education development.

In 1992, the government released the second policy document on education: *Focus on Learning*. The main thrust of *Focus on Learning* was the mobilization of resources for the development of formal education. However, the report recognized the need for better and more effective ways of delivering to education to both adults and out-of-school youth. It also identified poor coordination, underfunding, lack of suitable teaching materials, and lack of training as the main problems facing adult continuing education in Zambia.

Finally, both the 1996 Final Draft of the ESIP document, *Investing in Our People* and the 1996 *Educating Our Future* recognized the central importance of adult continuing education and literacy. For example, *Investing in Our People* identifies "increasing access to formal and nonformal education and skills training" as one of its nine key policy priorities (GRZ, 1996, p. vii). Similarly, *Educating Our Future* states that the Ministry of Education "will promote open learning, lifelong education, and a variety of mechanisms for continuing and distance education" (Ministry of Education, 1996, p. 80).

However, both documents also acknowledge that adult continuing education faces serious problems of underfunding, lack of skilled personnel and transport, inadequate materials for learning and teaching and poor coordination. Although there is potential for enormous growth in the number of students reached by adult continuing programmes, the "capacity to sustain immediate and rapid growth does not exist" (Ministry of Education, 1996, p. 80). Finally, key policy makers agree that the central issue facing adult continuing education in Zambia is to change the persistent philosophy that adult and education continuing is "a subordinate function and department in the education system."

Summary and conclusion

The general picture that emerges of the development and provision of adult education and literacy is that it has remained marginal to the formal education system. This total neglect is mirrored in the programmes offered by the Department of Continuing Education in the Ministry of Education and adult literacy in the Ministry of Community Development. For instance, there is no doubt that continuing education is a Cinderella department functioning at the margins of public and ministry concerns, operating with minimal funds, physically carrying out its activities in reflected in the a small ersatz structure just within the perimeter fence of ministry, but almost as far out of the mainstream of ministry activities as one could get: a fitting symbol to the marginalization of adult continuing education.

The marginalization is also reflected in the low priority in resource allocation from the Zambian government. Since independence, total financing of adult education and literacy has accounted for less than one per cent of the total annual expenditure on education. Consequently, there has been an irregular pattern of expansion and curtailment depending on the resources actually available. After the education reform exercise of 1977, there were great hopes expressed that continuing education provision would

expand rapidly, but the limitation on finances quickly put paid to these hopes. Although government involvement has increased since 1964, it is evident that external funding and support from a variety of sources have largely sustained the provision of adult continuing education. Initially, churches and missionaries were the key players. After political independence, UN agencies, private companies and voluntary organizations became involved.

Although there have been numerous official statements adult education and literacy by the government, there has been no consistent and coordinated policy on adult education and literacy. This is partly due to the initial colonial neglect by the government, but it also reflects the lack of a coordinated "policy lobby" by those involved in funding and providing adult continuing education.

It is important to emphasize two important factors that have had a major impact on the development and provision of adult education and literacy in Zambia. First, it clear that economic decline and crisis has severely affected sustained government provision of adult education. This is not surprising. Research has shown that in a period of economic recession, adult education provision is more vulnerable than formal education to the shortage of funds for education (Lewin, 1986; Kelly, 1991). When public resources are in short supply, educational services that are directed towards the weaker, less well organised, more dispersed members of the community tend to lose out, whereas every effort is made to preserve those that cater for individuals or social groups whose political, socio-cultural and socio-economic status enables them to command a strong lobby.

The second factor is that in Zambia, as in the majority of African countries, education is considered mainly as a prerogative of the young, something that belongs primarily to children and youths, as something which if not acquired early on may never be acquired or may be hardly worth acquiring, as something once-off, a single "dose" being regarded as adequate to equip one for life. When education is viewed as being predominantly the domain of the young people, the public is unwilling to make sacrifices on behalf of adults who may have missed out on its provision, whether partially at a given educational level or totally by having no schooling whatever. This philosophy prevailed in Zambia where it was confidently believed that with the widening access to primary education, the problem of illiteracy would die a natural, if somewhat slow, death. To some extent, the low priority given to adult education on the agendas of powerful funding organization influencing global and national education policy reform such as the World Bank, and the overemphasis on basic education as the most 'critical' level of education in terms of the social returns on investment, questionable as it may be, has reinforced the above philosophy.

It is evident that the economic crisis and reduced role of the state in adult education provision seems to have created new opportunities for non-governmental actors to become more involved in adult education. One of the main issues to be addressed is the development of coordinated policy to mobilize resources and committed actors to develop effective strategies of stemming the decline of adult education. The establishment of ZAALIT appears to be a step in the right direction.

Notes

[1]Sheath was the Director of External Studies at the University of New England, Australia. He was invited by the colonial government to advise on the establishment of the External Studies and Correspondence Education Unit.

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Chapter 17

THE STATE OF ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

Stanley T. Mpofu

Introduction

The attainment of independence in 1980 ushered in a new era in Zimbabwe: an era in which the indigenous population was expected to play a much more significant role in the development of the country. Yet, at that time, 63% (2.5 million) of people aged 15 and above (all of whom were black) were either illiterate or semi-literate (Grainger, 1986). Clearly, nearly two thirds of the productive population could not read and write. To confront this problem, the government, in 1980, incorporated literacy into the work of the Ministry of Education and Culture (Mpofu, 1997). From then on, adult literacy education became a dominant area of concern in Zimbabwe's adult and continuing education. This chapter examines four salient features of adult literacy education that may determine the shape of adult education for a long time to come.

Justification for literacy education

At the time of Zimbabwe's independence in 1980, there was adequate theoretical and empirical evidence to support a positive correlation between literacy and development. In 1976, the Conference of African Ministers of Education (Tehran, Iran) had resolved that basic education was indispensable to development, peace and stability in Africa. George Smith (1978) attested to this claim when he theorised that literacy is the basic personal skill that underlies the whole modernising sequence. In 1979, (that is, one year before Zimbabwean independence), the British Committee on Literacy endorsed this view by stating that literacy is an essential factor in development in African countries. The drawbacks of a low level educated populace had also been pointed out. UNESCO (1976) referred to low level education as a real counter - development factor in emerging nations. In this context, Bown and Tomori (1979) saw low level education as a handicap to work performance and capable of hampering a citizen's chances of contributing to nation building, in family, community productivity and civic matters and, as such, as a liability to the progress of society. Earlier, in 1971, Bowman and Anderson had illustrated the close relationship between human resources development and economic development. They studied literacy rates in 1950, and per capita income in 1955, measured in US$ in 83 countries. They found that the countries could be divided into three categories:

a) Thirty poor countries with adult literacy below 40% in which the 1955 per capita income did not exceed $300.00 (except for oil rich Sabah);

b) Twenty seven mixed countries in which literacy rates ranged from 30-70 percent in which incomes were virtually uncorrelated with literacy;

c) Twenty four rich countries with literacy rates above 70%, including twenty one very rich countries with literacy rates of 90% where the 1955 per capita income exceeded $5000.

From the above, Bowman and Anderson concluded that a literacy rate of about 40% was necessary to raise the per capita income to over $500. Figures on world literacy and per capita income for 1950, presented by Bhagwat (1966), supported the conclusion of Bowman and Anderson. According to Bhagwat, the 1950 world mean literacy rate (calculated from available statistics in 136 countries) was 56%, and the whole of Africa (with the exception of South Africa), Asia, South East Asia, Latin and Central America, and the Middle East, fell below the mean. Also, according to Bhagwat, the world mean per capita income for the same year (calculated from available statistics in 96 countries) was $200.00. Similarly, the above areas (with the exception of Latin America) fell below the mean.

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Zimbabwe was then, like it is now, walking along the modernisation path. It, therefore, made sense to invest in adult literacy education which had been acclaimed world wide as an index of economic development. Accordingly, in September 1981, the Zimbabwe national literacy programme began (Mpofu, 1995). From the onset, the literacy programme was conceived as four dimensional in approach. This is evident from its initial objectives. First and foremost, it was expected to be a basic *literacy* programme that would teach the illiterate and semi-literate to read, write and calculate in the mother tongue. Secondly, it was viewed as a *basic education* programme that would form the foundation for further studies for the many people who had missed out on education during the colonial era. Thirdly, it was expected to spearhead economic development among the neo literates by enabling them to engage in *"functional"* activities. Fourthly and finally, it was seen as a *conscientization* strategy that would liberate the illiterate from the bondage of colonialism (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994b).

Rationale for the four-dimensional approach to literacy education

The first three dimensions of literacy were, without doubt, consistent with the modernisation mode of development that the country had inherited from the colonial era. However, Zimbabwe had come out of a bitter war in which radical change and empowerment of the masses had been the motto of the liberation movements. Therefore there was a need to provide a radical literacy programme consistent with some of the campaign slogans that had won the day for the ruling party. Accordingly, what had clearly begun as a literacy programme in September 1981 was launched as a mass literacy campaign on 16 July, 1983 by the then Prime Minister Robert Mugabe who at Suswe, Mudzi declared that:

> the literacy campaign (is) a campaign to set the mind free.
> Freedom ... means little unless the people are mentally emancipated;
> and their minds are not free if they are illiterate and innumerate
> (Bhola, 1988: 36).

These were fitting words for the revolutionary context in which the literacy programme was conceived. Zimbabwe was at the time a revolutionary society (Bhola, 1988). Hence a radical dimension in its literacy which was consistent with the spirit of the times.

Basic Literacy

The basic literacy dimension of the literacy programme was aimed at mobilizing and motivating "illiterate and semi - literate adults to acquire the basic skills of reading, writing and calculating using the mother tongue" (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994b, p. 3). Accordingly, its implementation was guided by the following definition of literacy, described as *the ability to*:

i) read such things as simple texts, notices, etc. in the mother tongue;
ii) communicate in writing using the mother tongue (e.g. writing messages and making simple records); and
iii) count and carry-out simple calculations using the four processes in dealing with daily life problems, e.g. telling the time and sizes and budgeting, etc. (Ministry of Education, 1994b:4-5).

As evident from the above definition, the mother tongue was central to the teaching of basic literacy. It was, therefore, envisaged that all the seven indigenous languages, namely, Shona, Ndebele, Venda, Kalanga, Tonga, Shangani, and Chewa, would be utilized for literacy lessons. However, in practice the first two major languages were used for basic literacy instruction (Government of Zimbabwe/UNICEF, 1986). Accordingly, a literacy primer, in both Shona and Ndebele, served the purpose of a manual on how to construct words and sentences. In addition, a numeracy book with arabic numerals served as the basis for numeracy instruction. Shona and Ndebele continued to dominate basic literacy lessons even after literacy primers were developed in some of the other languages.

The implementation of basic literacy programmes has had several twists and turns since the inception of the literacy programme in 1980. Between 1980 and June 1982, the Non-Formal Education Unit in the Ministry of Education and Culture had sole responsibility for the implementation of government literacy work, nationwide. In July 1982, the literacy programme (and thus basic literacy programmes) became the joint responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the then Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs. A year later, in July 1983, the literacy programme was re-christened the "national literacy campaign" with a mandate to eradicate illiteracy within a period of five years, ending in June 1988 (Mpofu, 1995). Accordingly, half a million illiterates were expected to enroll in literacy classes, each year.

During the period of dual responsibility (which lasted till July 1988), the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs had overall responsibility for the programme. Accordingly, the Training Section of the Department of Community Development in that Ministry determined the overall strategy for the programme. This entailed the mobilisation of the illiterate, the organisation of classes and literacy training. Before long, two literacy coordinators were hired for each of the 55 districts, and charged with the responsibility for overseeing the programme in their district. Their task included the recruitment, training and supervision of volunteer literacy tutors, the distribution of literacy materials and the co-ordination of literacy work in the district. During this period, 15 000 volunteer literacy tutors were trained, nationwide. As their designation suggests, volunteer literacy tutors were not paid a salary for their work. Instead, they received a token of appreciation of Z$5.00 per month (Mpofu, 1995).

The Ministry of Education and Culture played a somewhat subordinate role. Through the Non-Formal Education Unit, it was assigned the following specific responsibilities: developing, writing and producing literacy materials; training district literacy coordinators; and evaluation. Dual responsibility for the literacy programme proved to be problematic, particularly in respect of co-ordination (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education 1989). Each Ministry did what it had to do without due reference to the other. This created serious operational problems, prompting the government, in July 1988, to shift the responsibility of the programme to the then Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. This prompted the creation within the Ministry, of the Division of Adult and Non-Formal Education, and the subsequent creation, within the new Division, of the Adult Literacy and Mass Education Section. The Adult Literacy and Mass Education Section became the new custodian of government literacy work in the country. The Section immediately drew up what became known as the Policy Strategy Document of 1989 (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 1989). The Strategy Document set new targets of 250 000 adult new participants per year, for the next 10 years. At this rate, the 2.5 million illiterates (barring changes in the figure either direction) would all be literate by the year 1999.

The departure of the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs did not lead to the creation of a new literacy structure on the ground. The structure that had been created remained more or less intact. And, over the years, very little has changed in the management and organisation of government literacy work. The only changes worth noting are that the Ministry has reverted to its original name, that of Ministry of Education and Culture, and that there is very little presence of literacy personnel outside head office. District literacy co-ordinators and volunteer literacy tutors have left en-masse: the former due to poor working conditions and the latter due to lack of payment (Mpofu 1995).

The outcomes of the basic literacy programme can be divided into three distinct phases, namely: the pre-campaign years, the campaign years, and the post-campaign years. The pre-campaign era refers to the period between 1980 and 1982. Table 1 shows the pattern of literacy enrolment during the period. Enrolment dramatically rose from 6879 in 1980 to 25950 in 1982. This dramatic rise in literacy enrolment can be attributed to the fact that literacy (like most other educational opportunities) were, at that time,

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novelties that had been brought about by independence. Being literate, and thus educated, was synonymous with liberation and independence. Hence, literate enrolment trebled in three years.

Table 1 : **Enrollment in literacy programmes in Zimbabwe from 1980 to 1982**

S/No.	Year	No. enrolled
1	1980	6879
2	1981	11603
3	1982	2595
	Total =	44432

Source : UNICEF, 1985.

The campaign years (1983 - 1988) witnessed an even more dramatic rise in literacy enrolment (Table 2). The reasons for this are not hard to come by. The campaign years were marked by passionate political speeches that exhorted the illiterate to join literacy classes. Literacy was painted as the gateway to the many social and economic opportunities that had resulted from political independence.

Table 2 : **Basic statistical data on literacy education in Zimbabwe for 1983 to 1988**

S/No	Year	No. of learners	No of learners examined	Learners made literate		
1	1983	90052	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.	Total
2	1984	117461	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.
3	1985	105203	28520	6164	15493	21657
4	1986	82138	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.
5	1987	75395	23069	4845	12728	17573
6	1988	24350	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.	N.E.
Grand Total =		494599	51589	11009	28221	39230

N.E. indicator for, no examinations were held in these years.
Source : Ministry of Education and Culture, the Adult literacy and Mass Education section, April 1991.

The campaign years reached a crescendo in 1984 and 1985 with enrolments of 117 461 and 105 203, respectively. However, the total cumulative enrolment of 494 599 was barely a fifth of the 2.5 million that was projected for the period. Also, the figure of 494 599 is misleading, largely due to re-enrolling, (Mpofu, 1997). Re-enrolling has been largely attributed to the use of devious means by literacy personnel to boost literacy enrolment. A case in point is cited by Mpofu (1997). Mpofu reports that district literacy coordinators in the district of Beitbridge were using drought relief provisions to attract people (irrespective of their literacy status) to literacy classes. To qualify for drought relief food, people had to register for literacy classes first. This resulted in hundreds of literate people enrolling for literacy classes. In addition, the figure of 494 599 is misleading in that it does not take into account the drop outs who average about 50 percent per year (Mpofu,1997). It is, therefore, not surprising that the campaign years added only 28 221 new literates onto the literate population of the country (Table 2).

The campaign years ended on a low note with an enrolment of 24 350 in 1988. The decline could be explained in two ways. Firstly, the rhetoric was strongest at the beginning of the campaign years. Secondly, the people began to realize that literacy did not automatically bring forth the promised changes. It was, therefore, time to go back to the drawing board. Hence, the removal of the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs from literacy work in 1988, and the subsequent rejuvenation of the programme through the policy strategy document of 1989. The post-campaign years did not have a significant impact on the basic literacy programme. Between 1989 and 1993, cumulative literacy enrolment only amounted to 237,527 (Table 3), barely a fifth of the figure of 1 250,000, that had been projected for that period. And only 40 089 new literates joined the literate population during this period (Table 3). What is notable about this period is that it produced more literates than the campaign years.

Table 3 : **Basic statistical data on literacy education in Zimbabwe for 1989 to 1993.**

Year	No. of learners	No. of learners Examined	Learners made literate
1989	53607	22106	12468
1990	59797	17079	9256
1991	55662	11194	7217
1992	41002	10513	6052
1993	27459	7802	5096
TOTAL	237527	68694	40089
Average since 1990	45980	11647	6905

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, the Adult Literacy and Mass Education Section, April, 1991 and May, 1994a.

Enrolment stabilized around 50 000 in the first three years of the post-campaign era, but dropped sharply to 27 459 in 1993. This prompted the launching of the current "community based" phase of the literacy programme. Like its predecessors, the current literacy phase has retained the traditional outlook in approach. Commenting on the working definition of the new thrust of literacy, Mpofu (1997) laments that the literacy programme continues to place the three R's in the centre of literacy. Records pertaining to the post-1993 era have been very scanty. Nevertheless, estimates based on attendance lists (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1998) suggest that annual enrolment has barely exceeded the 20 000 mark in the past five years. When combined with figures of earlier phases, these estimates suggest that the literacy programme has contributed less than 100 000 new literates to the country, since its inception in 1980 (Mpofu, 1999).

The Basic Education dimension

The second set of objectives of the literacy programme sought to encourage neo literates to further their education by rejoining the formal education system. To this end, the programme sought to create a link between the literacy programme and the formal education system, and thus enable the neo literates to proceed with schooling. This did not become a concern of the literacy programmers till 1989 when the Policy Strategy Document of that year noted the absence of this dimension in the literacy programme. Accordingly, a primary school equivalent programme was designed for adults. The curricular content of the programme, which is known as the Zimbabwe Adult Basic Education Course (ZABEC), is considered

suitable for adult learners. Nevertheless, it is considered to be equivalent to the formal primary school programme in cognitive demand. The curricular comprises English, Shona or Ndebele, Mathematics, and Development and Social Studies. While the formal primary school programme takes 7 years to complete, ZABEC can be completed in 3 years, after the basic literacy cycle. The programme is divided into three levels (of one year duration each) as follows:

i) Level I- equivalent to Grades 1 to 3;
ii) Level II - equivalent to Grades 4 to 5; and
iii) Level III - equivalent to Grades 6 to 7.

Table 4: **Enrollment on the Zimbabwe Adult Basic Education Course: 1990 - 1993**

YEAR	ZABEC I			ZABEC II			ZABEC III			TOTAL
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	-
1990	1587	899	2486							2486
1991	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.			
1992	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1993	3834	1316	5150	2790	1048	3838	2620	957	3577	12565
TOTAL	5421	2215	7636	2790	1048	3838	2620	957	3577	15051

N.A. indicator for, data not available.
Source: Mpofu (1994)

Table 4 shows the cumulative enrolment for ZABEC from 1990 to 1993. Altogether, only 15051 or 16% of all literacy graduands had joined ZABEC classes by 1993. There was no enrolment for ZABEC II and ZABEC III in 1990, and none for ZABEC III in 1991, hence there is nothing in the relevant columns. The other blank columns are due to inactivity or lack of records. It was envisaged that most of those who complete the ZABEC programme would proceed with their education to the highest level of formal education possible. However, it seems that this programme may have died a natural death. There do not seem to be any records beyond 1993 (Mpofu, 1999). Also, it is very difficult to tell what became of those, if any, who completed the ZABEC programme. Hence, it is very difficult to assess both the quantitative and the qualitative achievements of this programme.

The "Functional" Dimension

The objectives of the "functional" dimension of literacy were as follows:

- to mobilize and motivate adults for economic . . . . development;
- to facilitate meaningful and effective participation of individuals, groups of individuals and communities in local as well as national development programmes;
- to encourage and strengthen the participation of Zimbabweans in organizations such as co-operatives, women's groups, youth groups and other mutually beneficial groups in our society;
- to foster the development of confidence in manipulating the environment based on a scientific analysis of cause and effect in an effort to improve the quality of life through functional literacy; and
- to promote economic development through increased productivity (Ministry of Education, 1994b:3).

Evidently, the Adult Literacy and Mass Education Section used the term "functional literacy" to mean the process of engaging new literates in practical activities designed to enhance national productivity, and thus economic development. Because "functional literacy" was envisaged as a post-literacy activity, it did not become a concern of the relevant section till 1985, when the first graduands of the basic literacy programme came into being. As a post-literacy activity, "functional literacy" was aimed at offering neo-literates an opportunity to practise their newly acquired skill and, thus, enable them to retain it. To facilitate the introduction of "functional literacy", from 1987 onwards, subject content specialists were hired to assist in materials development and skills training. Accordingly, relevant materials were developed in Primary Health Care, Agriculture, Workers' Education, Women's Education, and Civic Education.

The year 1990 witnessed the first functional literacy "enrolment". Altogether, 7518 enrolled for this programme in that year (Table 5). Given the number of those who had been declared literate in 1989 (Table 3), the figure of 7518 was quite significant, as it amounted to 47% of the previous year's graduands. However, this is not to say that literacy graduands of earlier years did not join the "functional literacy" projects. It is quite possible that the majority of participants came from earlier years.

Table 5: **Enrollment on the 'functional literacy programme for 1990 to 1993**

Year	Number of learners by gender and total		
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
1990	6282	1236	7518
1991	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1992	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1993	8767	1787	10554

N.A. indicator for, data not available.
Source: Mpofu (1994)

There were no records for 1991 and 1992. It could not be established whether this was due to inactivity or the unavailability of records. By 1993, total cumulative enrolment in "functional literacy" programmes had risen to 10 554. Enrollees were organized around co-operatives, women's groups, youth groups and other such mutually beneficial groups in society.

Enrolment for "functional literacy" programmes has been on the decline since 1993. Records have been very scanty largely due to inactivity (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1998). While the Ministry's initial objective to organise people around income generating activities has been implemented, coverage has been insignificant. At the height of "functional literacy" programmes in 1993, the cumulative enrolment of 10 554 only amounted to 12% of all those that had been declared literate since 1980.

The objectives of the "functional literacy" dimension as outlined suggest something bigger than co-operatives and income generating projects. It is very difficult to tell what these seemingly isolated activities have amounted to in terms of increased national productivity and economic development.

An implicit objective of the "functional literacy" dimension was to facilitate literacy retention. If participation on the Ministry's "functional literacy" programmes is anything to indicate the retention of literacy, then not many neo literates have kept the skill. Finally, qualitative outcomes of "functional literacy" projects are very difficult to determine, as there are no records pertaining to their performance.

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What is known is that neo-literates are engaged in a variety of activities such as poultry, sewing, knitting, basketry, and pottery (Mpofu, 1994).

The Conscientization dimension

The fourth dimension of the literacy programme can be referred to as the liberation dimension. It is discernible from the following set of objectives:

- to promote national consciousness, unity and patriotism on the part of all Zimbabweans;
- to encourage an awareness of . . . exploitation . . . and foster the creation of equal opportunities for all members of our society . . . ;
- to mobilize and motivate adults for . . . social, cultural and political development;
- to facilitate meaningful and effective participation of individuals, groups of individuals and communities in local as well as national development programmes;
- to foster the development of confidence in manipulating the environment based on a scientific analysis of cause and effect in an effort to improve the quality of life through functional literacy; and
- to promote the preservation and development of the positive aspect of our culture (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994b, pp. 3- 4).

The involvement of the then Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs in literacy in July 1982, and the subsequent christening of the literacy programme as a literacy campaign in July 1983 was clearly an attempt by Government to address this aspect of literacy. The Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs was brought in to emancipate "the masses form illiteracy and innumeracy so that they could meaningfully participate in the new democratic society and its structures" (Mpofu, 1997, p. 27). The Ministry was mandated to develop literacy programmes that would transform and democratize the Zimbabwean society that had been traumatized by years of colonial oppression.

There is no evidence to suggest that the literacy programme or the campaign as it was called then became anything beyond the basic literacy programme that it was before the involvement of the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs. Apart from the rhetoric in political rallies there was no effort whatsoever to turn literacy lessons into "cultural circles" (in the Freiren sense). However, the passionate speeches seems to have succeeded in bringing more people to the literacy classes as evidenced by more enrolment during the "campaign years" (Table 2).

The departure of the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs marked the official demise of the conscientization years. From then onwards the tone of literacy mellowed back to basic literacy, and thus became consistent with what was in fact going on in literacy programmes.

An Appraisal

Despite a clear commitment, at the onset, to the four distinct dimensions of literacy, the actual implementation of the programme seems to have favoured one dimension, namely, basic literacy. This is clearly evident from the narrow view of literacy on which the programme was founded.

The working definition of literacy then (1981) and now (2000) views literacy as the ability to communicate in print. Conversely, it views illiteracy as the inability to communicate in print. This is a narrow view of illiteracy. Illiteracy refers to the skills people lack and also the conditions under which those skills should occur (Merrill, 1997). Literacy is a relative set of behaviours that are specific to a person's environment (Mackie, 1997). The Zimbabwe literacy programme's view of literacy is, clearly, a limited perception of what the term stands for. Unfortunately, the measures that have been put in place to address the problem of illiteracy have, to a very large extent, been based on this limited view of literacy.

Accordingly, literacy lessons have been largely aimed at teaching the 3Rs (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic) in the mother tongue (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994 b). Hence, despite a broad base in principle, in practice, the programme has barely been anything but basic literacy.

Also, it seems that rhetoric has been the mainstay of the literacy programme. The literacy boom of the "campaign" years is clear testimony of the importance of political demagoguery to rally people around a programme. However, for long term sustenance a literacy programme must either live up to some of the declared promises or carve a new, believable and achievable agenda. Further, the literacy programme has failed to change with the times. The rhetoric was consistent with the revolutionary tide of the early eighties. It was necessary to sustain some of the dreams that had been raised during the height of nationalism in the seventies. When it became evident that some of the promises were unattainable, the tune of the rhetoric should have changed. A glance at the relevant documents, namely, the initial programme document of 1981, the policy document of 1989, and the new thrust document of 1994 reveals that the programme objectives have not been adjusted in twenty years (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1981; 1994 b; Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 1989). This is clear testimony that the literacy programme was originally cast in iron. Hence, there has never been an attempt to re-cast the literacy programme according to new developments in society. Thus, a literacy programme that was developed in revolutionary circumstances has become conservative, and thus irrelevant to a clientele that was brought up to expect radical changes.

Compounding the narrow focus and too much dependency on the rhetoric, is that the Adult and Mass Education Section seems to have undergone some mild form of goal displacement. There is no doubt that when it was first mooted the literacy programme was viewed as a means to the upliftment of the marginalised. However, over the years the goals were reversed. The literacy programme became the goal. Hence, in some places, officials used drought relief to boost the fledgling literacy enrolment. This would explain the prevalence of re-enrolment among the literate. The "functional literacy" and ZABEC dimensions were clearly afterthoughts. And, as such, there has never been adequate preparation for them. Hence, in terms of enrolment, they have been anything but significant. Also, it is evident that it was not clearly envisaged how literacy would bring about increased productivity and meaningful participation in the economy of the country. It was merely hoped that literacy would somehow bring about economic progress and thus social mobility. Hence, there has been no serious attempt to link literacy with the everyday demands of the people's lives.

In respect of the liberation dimension, nothing but rhetoric was used to empower the people. Thus, apart from passionate political appeals for people to join literacy classes, this dimension of literacy has never been directly addressed. The Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs which was clearly given the mandate to transform the people did not have a clear cut agenda on what to do. Accordingly, this dimension died a natural death. Its persistence as a stated objective of the literacy programme clearly reflects the failure of the literacy programmers to move with the times.

Conclusions and some implications for practice

Several implications for practice are discernible from what has transpired so far in the government literacy programme. First and foremost, a literacy programme must be based on realistic and thus attainable objectives. There is no point in coming up with a grandiose scheme that raises enormous hopes and expectations if the measures that are finally put in place are nowhere near the expectations raised. Such a scheme frustrates both the personnel and the clientele. It does not take the personnel long to realise that no matter what they did the scheme would never achieve the stated objectives. This may bring about a feeling of hopelessness among the personnel. Hence, the mass resignations. It could also encourage them to seek devious means in their desperate efforts to match the unrealistic expectations, as was the case in

Beitbridge where personnel were found using enrolment in literacy classes as a condition for receiving drought relief. Similarly, it does not take clientele long to realise that the stated objectives are no more than a propaganda stint. Accordingly, they give the programme the attention it deserves. Hence, the high drop out rate and the declining enrolment.

Secondly, rhetoric alone cannot sustain a literacy programme. A literacy programme that depends on rhetoric for sustenance is bound to falter sooner than later. Rhetoric tends to be inflexible because it is based on ideology rather than reality. For this reason, a rhetoric based programme operates in a vacuum and thus fails to take the needs of the people into consideration. Also, such a programme lacks the necessary dynamism to change with the times.

Therefore, it seems in order to suggest that the Zimbabwe literacy programme needs to be re-examined in light of contemporary developments, and be improved or overhauled accordingly. In today's world where change is the only constant variable, people's needs change from day to day. There is a need to determine the current needs of the adult non-literates and to adjust the literacy programme to suit their interests.

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SECTION IV: PERSPECTIVES FROM OUTSIDE AFRICA

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Chapter 18

RE-DEFINING ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Paul Fordham

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest that adult education as a field of study not only needs redefinition, but that African scholars should now be encouraged to take a lead in doing so. There are a number of reasons for starting with this assertion. First, compared, say, with teacher education, the knowledge base for scholarship in this field remains quite small and is dominated by thinking which stems from Western Europe and North America. Secondly, the main scholarly texts relate to a field of practice which is also rooted in those continents. Thirdly, because field practice is changing so fast Bcertainly in Europe, texts which were once standard fare in academic training courses (e.g. Houle, 1973, Bown & Tomori, 1979, Knowles, 1980, Darkenwald and Merriam 1982, Rogers, 1986, Bwatwa et al, 1989) are fast becoming out of date even in the countries for which they were written. Their replacements are likely to be even more context specific or, if global, written from quite different perspectives from the texts of the 1970s and 1980s (e.g. Walters (ed.) 1997).

At one of the preparatory meetings for the UNESCO 5th International Conference on Adult Education (1997) in Hamburg, a senior official declared that what we were all doing was no less than *redefining the field.* In one sense he was absolutely right: if what was meant was redefining the *practice* of adult education, then the Conference did indeed move a very long way from the last similar conference of 1985 (Paris). We were then still locked into concepts that were far from the new ideas of an essential public service with comprehensive aims where adult education becomes the

> key to the twenty-first century. It is both a consequence of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society. It is a powerful concept for fostering sustainable development, for promoting democracy, justice, gender equity, and scientific, social and economic development, and for building a world in which violent conflict is replaced by dialogue and a culture of peace based on justice... (Hamburg Declaration para. 2)

These comprehensive aims contrast strongly with those of 1985, where adult education was seen either as mainly remedial (e.g. adult literacy for those who had missed a normal schooling), or a rather narrow vocational training serving largely economic needs. At that time one important function (the reduction of inequalities) was seen solely as 'due to imperfections in the education system' rather than as part of the structural imperfections of the wider society. Some voices were raised against too great an emphasis on economic goals (Final Report 1985: para.153), but it would be another twelve years before the idea of a fully comprehensive service had a secure place in international thinking.

A Field of Operations and a Field of Study

Certainly if the follow-up to Hamburg maintains its momentum, there is now recognised in global discourse a great variety of activities and actors in the field of practice who have ben there for a long time, but whose programmes have only recently been recognised as 'adult education'. These include a wide range of non-governmental organisations, community groups, women's groups, employers, trades unions and non-educational government ministries as well as Ministries of Education and specifically educational organizations.

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However, those who see themselves as adult educators have long pointed out that the practice of 'adult education' is often undertaken by those who label themselves in different ways: for example, agricultural extension or health education. A pioneering study undertaken in Kenya (Thomas,1971), also pointed out that there:

> is a general lack of understanding of the scope of adult education and its role in national economic and social development. Many people equate adult education with literacy teaching alone, yet in terms of expenditure, literacy classes take only 1.6% of total costs. 'Education' is often restricted in people's thinking to formal schooling at primary school, secondary school and university (p.68)

For many African countries this situation has not changed significantly. A recently published compilation of adult education chronologies for Africa (Draper {ed.} 1998) recognises that 'the stories of African adult education have barely begun to be told', and in most of the chronologies there are gaps. Thus one continuing task for practitioners and scholars alike is to continue the compilation of relevant data and the extension of research. But determined advocacy for the new approaches will also have to be part of the agenda if a service with comprehensive aims is to come into being.

The determination shown in Hamburg for a move away from an overly narrow view of 'adult education' (e.g. remedial adult literacy or job specific skills training), was highlighted by the decision to use the phrase *adult learning* in the Conference title. The intention was to emphasise that the starting points for policy and planning must be the learners themselves, their motives and the purposes they see in learning, rather than existing structures and concepts. The example of women in India who were offered literacy but wanted first to learn how to mend their water pumps, was a small illustration of how a learner-centred approach can create a significant shift in the perceptions of planners. It also widens understanding of what adult education can achieve. The technical skills needed were certainly adult *learning*, but were not until later labelled adult *education*. Subsequently, these same women wanted to become literate, but this was not their first priority (Fordham,1998) In any analysis of practice, perhaps the first question to be asked is what purposes are uppermost in the minds of the learners?

A survey of adult education training in anglophone Africa (Fordham,1997), reveals enormous variation between one country and another, both in public policy and in adult education practice. The practice of 'adult education' ranges all the way from an almost exclusive concentration on literacy, as in Tanzania, to a consciousness (as in the new South Africa) that adult education should play a prominent part in all aspects of development, including sectors like health, agriculture and community development, as well as the education which government Ministries of that name provide. In coming to terms with this variety, it can be helpful to distinguish between adult education as a *field of operations* and adult education as a *field of study* for training and research purposes.

The *field of operations* is the sum total of all educational and training programmes offered to adult learners across the various development sectors; it may include, among others, community development, agricultural extension, health education and adult literacy. On the other hand, the *field of study* is the sum total of all the research into context, programmes, people involved in them, teaching and learning within them, plus the training offered to personnel within the field programmes (for certificates, diplomas or degrees).

In ensuring that the field of study remains relevant to professional practice, the connection between them is all important. It is perfectly possible to devise an academic course in 'adult education' which has little relevance outside the university classroom. Such courses are all too common, even today. This is understandable when they are devised by inexperienced staff anxious to show what *they* know (often the

result of post-graduate programmes in other countries) and also in the knowledge that they have to convince senior university colleagues of the academic respectability of what they are doing. Changing the academic culture in some departments will require much advocacy amongst senior colleagues before decisions are made.

One argument must be that if appropriate training is to be offered, then for any one country, the field of operations (as locally defined) must itself be consulted about and be happy about the programme. If the field of study institutions (usually universities) are not themselves closely involved in or with the field of operations, then they may quickly become out of touch, out of date and perhaps largely irrelevant to the training or research needs of their students. For example, for the 1997 study of training it was pointed out that unless there is some congruence between training and employment opportunities, and between training and current development policies, then trainees will at best be only partly prepared for the world of work which exists in their context; and at worst, simply studying yet another academic subject in the vague hope of further personal development or economic advancement. Irrelevant training courses will be doomed if this is perceived to be the case.

Origins of the field of study in Africa

In most of Anglophone Africa, the beginnings of the field of study started from adult education training provision added onto departments which almost all started life as direct providers of adult education services, not as trainers or as academic departments teaching undergraduate students. For the most part (Zimbabwe is a significant exception), they grew from 'extra-mural' departments, which gave study opportunities to newly enfranchised adults in the years just before and after independence. The old British terminology still survives in some places (e.g. Lesotho, Swaziland), although all such departments have changed their own fields of operations over the years.

Thus the field of study has developed from a particular kind of field programme which was planned and implemented in the colonial or immediate post-colonial period and which has continued to influence developments in training and research within the same institutions. The purpose of the original extra-mural programmes was essentially political: to help ensure that the new states which emerged became liberal democracies on the metropolitan model. It was assumed that this kind of polity would be facilitated in part by the liberal adult education of the adult population. In the former British colonies it was also assumed that this could best be achieved by exactly the same kind of programme which had been promoted in Britain in the late 19th and early 20th century. Opportunities were provided for open debate about economic, social and political developments of the time (Titmus and Steele, 1995). As the first Principal of the College of Social Studies in Kenya expressed it in 1963, the programmes were 'not to produce specialists, but citizens who are better informed about the issues of the day, better able to play their part in dealing with them'(Fordham, Fox and Muzaale, 1998:p.5).

After the passage of more than fifty years, it is worth pausing for a moment to consider the kind of citizenship which these early British pioneers thought they were bringing to Africa, for so many of their assumptions have been undermined by events. If we divide citizenship into its civil, social and political dimensions, then the expatriate staff who arrived in the 1950s and 1960s tended to assume that civil and social rights were either secure or would be taken care of after independence was achieved. What mattered was the political dimension. And this view was shared by African political leaders at that time. The adult education then offered was designed to facilitate democratic decision making. It was an education which was 'democratic, dialectical and non-utilitarian...' (Fieldhouse, 1985). It was hoped that it would help in the development of a citizenship which 'expresses our inescapable dual identity as both individual and member of the whole, the public; our duality as autonomous persons who bear responsibilities in the public domain.' (Ransom 1994).

This approach became deeply unpopular, and not merely in Africa. One result of increasing globalisation in the 1980s was that citizens became redefined as users or consumers of services with a limited range of rights and information systems to support them. There seemed no need for any kind of education to facilitate a more active citizenship. In most of Africa the idea of citizenship in all its aspects has proved a fragile concept. The institutions of civil society (e.g. the legal profession, teachers' unions, many of the churches, political opposition) have had to work hard to survive centralising and authoritarian tendencies, quite apart from the ravages of wars, both civil and international.

The renewed interest in building or re-building 'civil society' in 'transitional' societies (e.g. Eastern Europe, South Africa) has sparked renewed interest in and debate about education for citizenship. There is an attempt in the 1996 Delors Report to re-establish the idea of civic education as part of the practice of citizenship and to do so in a way which has universal validity. There should be:

> a synergetic relationship between education and the practice of participatory democracy... to build an active civil society...with a view to achieving true solidarity(p.22)

And in one of his last interviews, Paulo Freire defined citizenship as the 'exercise of being oneself in the context of the state' (Stromquist, 1997). At the level of the nation state it may now be time to re-visit the idea of adult education for citizenship. (For a more extended discussion of these ideas see Fordham et al, 1998). Of course the local field programmes in African countries have changed greatly over the years but, whatever the merits (or not) of the early extra-mural programmes, they were certainly not local in either concept or origin. For the newly established universities, both the field of operations and, later, the field of study, were dependent on imported ideas and models. African scholars should be aware of the history of these programmes in order to be able to develop new ones according to their own sense of what is properly local as well as what can be properly borrowed or retained.

One very positive aspect of the early field programmes was the belief by professional adult educators that practical learning opportunities for adults as this relates to economic, social and political development remained the first priority even though their own professional concerns may have led them into research or into professional training: their understanding of the field of study is practitioner-led. This seems a positive advantage it is important to retain, especially with such rapid changes in the field of operations.

Training was the first 'field of study' activity to be added to their field practice by these former 'extra-mural' or adult education departments/institutes in African universities. These departments all took the view that their training curricula are - or should be - closely related to local development needs. What they all shared, was a belief in the importance of a firm link, not only with their own practice, but also with that of other adult education institutions. This belief in the importance of practical outcomes may not always be shared by modern university administrations more concerned to establish internationally respectable research credentials or to save money by suggesting that students studying adult education do not need to spend periods of time undertaking expensive practical placements.

The various fields of operation are now essentially local, whereas the field of study has to be part of a scholarly community which is essentially global. The most important variable in the various fields of operation is the policy framework (or lack of it) established by national governments. Unsurprisingly, it is possible to find examples of a wide range of policy frameworks. Most concentrate on adult literacy and tend to equate it with adult education. Countries like Botswana, where there is acceptance of the idea of a comprehensive programme, are still unusual in Africa.

Institutional responses may well be as important as the policy frameworks themselves, especially where civil society has remained strong and the institutions have some degree of distance from the policies of national governments. If the ideals promoted at Hamburg are to be extended then it will be ever more important to maintain a view of adult education which links it firmly with all sectors of development. While not all countries or institutions have been able to take this broad view, many of them have done so with varying degrees of success.

Relating the local (field of operations) to the global (field of study)

A new vision for adult education which sees it as a key to the twenty-first century, arises in part from the massive economic and political changes of the 1980s and the 1990s. As the Delors Report states succinctly:

> People today have a dizzying feeling of being torn by a globalisation whose manifestations they can see and sometimes have to endure, and their search for roots, reference points and a sense of belonging.(Delors,1996:18)

This led delegates in Hamburg (both Governments and NGOs) to adopt a comprehensive range of purposes for local action which were linked quite deliberately to the global issues which have been discussed at other UN specialist conferences: basic education (Jomtien 1990); the environment (Rio 1992); human rights (Vienna 1993); population (Cairo 1994); social development (Copenhagen 1995); women (Beijing 1996); Habitat II (Istanbul 1996)and the World Food Summit (Rome 1996). The important point to note for this chapter is that the starting point for future programme planning is this multiplicity of issues and purposes. Local agendas are becoming more specific and more focussed, but globally the various actors are increasingly influenced by these various social, political as well as economic issues.

Moreover, if the rhetoric of learner participation is to be made real, then it must also be recognised that learners thinking locally do not always present learning needs arranged in these neat categories. They will want to begin with real life issues which are holistic, multi-dimensional and cross sectoral. The world must turn conventional wisdom on its head. We are all interdependent, but global action which works can only be based on local thought and planning B and this is more likely to stem from the *search for roots, reference points and a sense of belonging* than from international thinking per se . As argued by Federico Mayor, for sustainable development and an inclusive citizenship, countless individuals must be allowed to transform themselves from within. How is this to be achieved? Certainly not by education alone; but the argument of this chapter is that a re-built adult education can help.

Adults will be motivated to learn for purposes which they themselves feel part of and which they also help to define. If local issues and purposes for learning are both to reflect, challenge and change global concerns and action, then adult learning in different local contexts must reflect the political/social and personal aspects as well as the economic purposes for which governments may want to provide programmes. 'Literacy will help you' says the government official. Maybe, say local people; but first let us have clean water/ better health care/access to land etc. The phrase 'think global, act local' has become such a shibboleth that we no longer think about it. We have to stand it on its head and *think local* (to arrive at the right policies),and *act global* (to ensure the resources are there). How does a redefined field of study begin to put these new visions into practice?

The assembling of new relevant data, the conduct of new research, advocacy, extension of links with an ever wider range of development programmes, including the search for roots, reference points and a sense of belonging have already been mentioned. But these are difficult new directions in all countries, and in sub-Saharan Africa only countries with vigorous civil societies will be able to engage in all of them: South

Africa certainly, a re-invigorated Nigeria and a few others. One significant omission in the documentation for the Hamburg Conference highlights the difficulties. The ten themes of the Conference were all well covered in the debates, but there was no composite background paper available for the second important theme, *improving the conditions and quality of adult learning*. The first theme on *the challenges of the twenty-first century* was mainly about purposes while all others except the last two (on economics and international co-operation) were about specific issues (literacy, women, work, environment, health and population). What the missing paper should have started was the translation of the concepts and ideas of theme one into plans which matched current institutional and political realities. It is significant that the substitute paper eventually published was produced by a participating international NGO. As they conclude, education is politics and adult education is urgent politics.' (IPPR 'An Appeal for Action' in *Adult Education and Development*, 49, 1997; Fordham, 1998)

Regional efforts will also be needed. But any country with an adult education training programme can make a start. Where a need has been accepted, it is likely that training will be funded. And if that happens a start can be made on the hard job of re-defining the field. Looking round for the nearest available texts will simply not be good enough. If they exist they are likely to be out of date or irrelevant or both. They have to be created.

The curriculum of training

The significant questions with which to begin are:

- for what purposes and from which development sectors are students being sent or recruited;
- what is the range of local adult education programmes;
- is the policy framework changing?

If a major purpose of training is the improvement of professional practice in different development sectors, then this at once gives rise to the question of how relevant are existing adult education curricula, both to the needs of employers (actual and potential) and to the policy framework which may have been developed for the particular country concerned?

One criticism sometimes advanced is that courses are 'too academic' in approach, and that this somehow derives from the location of training inside universities. It is true that some school teacher educators (one category of person often recruited to staff such courses) find it difficult to appreciate the quite different field practice required for adult education when compared with that for schools. But this does not derive from a university location per se. What all the training institutions have to do is to make sure that:

- they are themselves up to date with what is happening in all development sectors;
- they make regular assessments of local training needs; and,
- they make regular curricular adjustments in the light of these assessments.

All of this is made much easier if there is a clear government policy framework in place; but it may be even more important without it. Curricula which still rely on the former policy framework and curricula of the former colonial power may still survive, at least in part, unless regular reviews are undertaken. Two discussions undertaken in Uganda in 1996 in which this writer was involved, helped to generate ideas on the problem of retaining relevance to changing field practice.[1] The conclusion from these discussions is that the curriculum of adult education training has to begin from three essentials if it is to retain its relevance.

First it has to be clear about purposes - why are the students being trained? Is there a clear link with social,

economic and political development and with the needs of the under-educated.

Secondly, those who plan, recruit and sponsor for the courses have to be clear about the kind of students they will seek to attract. For what range of agencies is the course thought to be appropriate?

Thirdly, teaching staff and their students must above all keep pace with changing field practice by making sure that all teaching staff take part in the practical supervision of field work and that they undertake relevant research; this can be quite small scale, starting with the field programmes from which the students are recruited It follows that there must also be regular curricular review. When practice is changing rapidly, (e.g. the very rapid increase in NGO activity in many countries), courses must be able to respond quite quickly if they are to remain relevant.

There is also the question of keeping pace with changes in development practice. Development workers are now operating within a framework where both local and international funding agencies require a 'log frame' approach to planning. Newly recruited staff must quickly understand the mission statement of their organisation and know how to: assess needs; prepare work plans; mobilise and motivate learners; prepare appropriate documentation and evaluate results. One of the discussants noted that, as a former teacher on adult education training courses he had not himself recognised these skills as essential for the 'current reality'. The solution was that course tutors must have more experience of this reality, students must be exposed to it and field workers must be brought in to share their experience with students.

This is one way of starting to reform the curriculum of training and thus helping to redefine the field of study. Staff papers related to small scale research around these issues would not only help the task in hand, but also help to enhance their own academic status.

There is no doubt that improved human resource development through training, is just as important for the improvement of quality and relevance in the training departments. Staff development (including curriculum review workshops) can be conducted in part by colleagues from fellow African countries, as well as from within the country concerned. Staff development might include:

- management capacity;
- access to research and other academic opportunities for teaching staff;
- support for middle level personnel.

Comprehensive programmes like this require detailed consideration on a country by country basis and are largely outside the scope of this chapter; but the involvement of staff from more than one country, and occasionally from more than one continent, would help maintain the international character of the new scholarship.

Conclusion

A final thought. Adult education is a field of study, not a discipline with its own research methods, like psychology or geography or history. Whether we like it or not, the field of study is tied inextricably to what happens locally in the field of operations and is also called 'adult education'. What scholars have to do is to study an appropriate range of locally determined purposes, contexts and programmes, and analyse common elements of practice to develop general principles or theory. These then have to be related comparatively to events elsewhere on the continent and in the rest of the world.

The ferment of ideas which has been stimulated by the political and social revolution in South Africa is one place to start thinking about a future which there may already have arrived. As a recent survey

expressed it:

> ...institutions are fighting for formal recognition, access to further formal education for their students and at the same time attempting to preserve and develop their learner based open approach. One of our interviewees summed it up like this: we have moved from a period of challenging and fighting to a period of reconstruction and developing. We need to develop our programmes accordingly without ever forgetting where we came from. (Davies and Kaiser, 1997)

One starting point in re-thinking the future is to adopt the Hamburg terminology of 'adult learning' rather than adult education. In the country from which this is written (the UK), adult education still has to fight its corner, re-iterate the importance of its beliefs (e.g. starting with the learners, encouraging participatory democracy, pursuing equality goals), but also recognise that from a lifelong learning perspective, adult learning can and should happen both without and within programmes of adult education. Old academic territories are fast disappearing as new ones emerge. I conclude with one unanswered but not unimportant question: how does a Professor of Lifelong Learning differ from a Professor of Adult Education? In the UK at least there is a growing number of the former and a reducing number of the latter. The answers to the question are much more important than a change of title.

Notes

[1] With the Director of the Literacy and Basic Education organisation (LABE); and with a former university lecturer in adult education who is now Executive Secretary of the Development Network on Indigenous Voluntary Organisations (DENIVA)

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Chapter 19

INVENTING A FUTURE FOR ADULT EDUCATION IN AFRICA

H.S. Bhola

Introduction

"Inventing a future" is not just a cliche (Snell and Noble, 1998). In thinking about a future, we do indeed construct it. Truly, a future can be self-consciously and systematically invented by joining our reflections on the past and the present with imaginative anticipations of a future, and then by testing our future scenarios against the criteria of the possible and the probable. Neither the invention nor the actualization of a future of adult education in Africa will be an easy task. Globalization, an all-pervasive phenomenon of our times (Green, 1997; Greider, 1997) has not been congenial to Africa. The Structural Adjustment Programs of the World Bank imposed virtually on every African country have decimated institutions of both the state and the civil society in all the social sectors — economic, political, and cultural. There is talk of a meltdown in Africa as governments are unable to govern, leaders have opted out of political discourse and formed factions to fight unto death, homes and fields burn, hunger and disease haunts the land, and generation of children are being robbed of their future as their parent die by the millions by the plague of HIV/AIDS (UNDP, 1999).

Yet, the crisis is also an opportunity for the peoples of Africa to demand a leadership of vision, integrity, and commitment that can reinvent Africa by re-establishing a just and moral order for the happiness of all the African peoples. Pai Obanya (1999) in a tone full of regret wrote that nation-building in Africa is yet to begin; and that so far Africa had done more self-destruction than nation-building. The role of education (Delors et al., 1996) in nation-building is both obvious and extensive, having to educate both leaders and followers, in matters ranging from the ideological to the technological. The role of adult education in nation-building is even more significant because it is more autonomous in the choice of constituencies of learners to reach and in the choice of content to teach. Adult learners are already *in* life and *at* work and can put into action what they learn as soon as they learn it. Thereby they become, urgently and immediately, a part of the generative core of nation-building processes (UNESCO, 1997).

Definition and historical frames for praxis in adult education

The praxis of professional adult educators that we have talked about above, will involve a perpetual dialectic between reflection and action. In turn, reflection (and self-education) will need to be situated within overlapping frames of history, politics and theory which are sketched below in this section. A model for fully-functional system for adult education (Bhola, 1994, 1998), to be re-invented in particular contexts of time and place, in participation with all the stakeholders, will be presented in the next section.

Adult education as culture and sector

In all human societies, developed or developing, adult education is first a culture and then a *sector* (Bhola, 1997c). Within the culture of adult education in Africa, adults educate other adults and socialize youth by beating drums and dancing, telling folk tales and other stories, reciting oral histories and praise-singing, by playing games, organizing initiation ceremonies and offering divinations; and in more recent times, by putting up posters, holding public meetings, organizing exhibitions, and by broadcasting over radio and television.

Adult education as sector is the formally organized establishment of adult education that would typically include the national ministry of education with its bureau or directorate of adult education and adult literacy; and departments, cells, and centers of adult education in provinces, districts, and on down to

zones, blocks and communities. The adult education sector also includes non-government organizations (NGO's) and other institutions of the civil society paralleling state institutions at various levels from the national to the local community-based organizations (CBOs) (Haberson, 1994; Bhola, 1996)). Additionally, the sector of adult education includes universities which through their various departments and institutes must train and credential adult education personnel; and through research must produce professional knowledge usable by the sector of adult education.

The challenge of adult education today is to create a vibrant professionalized sector of adult education without devaluing and weakening the character and content of the indigenous culture of adult education. Indeed, the adult education sector should receive its agenda of research and training from the culture of adult education and, in the process, should contribute to the enrichment and renewal of the culture of adult education. This, of course, will not be easy, either. In the so-called traditional and transitional societies, the cultures of adult education are quite often under attack and some of indigenous knowledge and traditional modes of transmission of knowledge and skills are dismissed as backward and secretive and therefore inhibitive of development in societies. On the other hand, it is also argued that the modern sector of adult education may have dismissed the traditional culture of adult education out of hand and without a thought; and borrowed indiscriminately from the West, irrelevant ideologies, missions, and methods of adult education, simply to keep up appearances of modernity or only because the donors donated and demanded. All these issues can be linked to the question of development.

New definition of development

There have been significant developments in the theories and practices of development itself over the last half century (Holtz, 1995; Sen, 1999). It is beginning to be realized that development defined in Western norms of profligate material consumption for a life of narcissism and self-aggrandizement is neither possible nor desirable for the non-Western world; and that the West itself shall have to redefine development in more than economic and technological terms to include also the political, the cultural *and* the spiritual. It is understood also that development can not simply be served to the people on a platter. People must develop themselves. People must learn to understand how the world works, and take initiatives to acquire development-oriented knowledge, attitudes and skills. They must become themselves the loci of control of the social processes to reinvent both identities and societies (Freire & Macedo, 1987). The millions of farmers, workers, and homemakers who are already in the formal, informal or subsistence economies, and working or looking for work to feed their families must learn the new definitions of development and how to engage in the processes of transformation of self and society from adult educators in "schools without walls." Indeed, adult education is the only channel of education for these unschooled and the ultra poor in Africa and elsewhere.

Adult education and adult literacy connection

For adult educators in Africa, it is important to remember that the relationship between adult education and adult literacy is both deep and integral in the developing areas of the world. When societies were predominantly pre-literal oral cultures, adult education was, of course, delivered without the help of adult literacy. But not anymore. Attempts to use radio and television as substitutes have not succeeded. These media have not become as accessible as once hoped, and in their scripting and programming these media use the "grammar of print" which is not easily comprehended by the illiterate (Bhola, 1990). In today's world, a substantial part of the development knowledge to be communicated to adults is "modern" knowledge, and, therefore, adult literacy by necessity has become the first rung of the ladder of adult education and, thereby, of development. Continued illiteracy has also come to be seen as the denial of a "second chance" for education to youth and adults initially bypassed by school systems, as well as the shutting out of the now illiterate from the nonformal processes of knowledge transmission through adult education using the literacy as vehicle. No wonder, literacy has become a public good, and illiteracy a clear

and cruel disadvantage ... economically, socially, and politically.

Literacy for all adults has come to acquire yet another justification at the deepest levels of individual identity and human culture. We know now that what separates human beings from other creatures is the human ability to make symbolic transformations of reality, and to have organized those symbolic products into spoken languages. Truly, the ability to communicate through a spoken language was the first culmination of our humanity. Literacy (to be able to commit a spoken language to writing and then reading it) is the second culmination of our humanity in the sense that we have learned to make second order symbolic transformations of reality (in writing) of reality already symbolically transformed (in spoken language) (Bhola, 1997b). Literacy has indeed changed the "technology of intellect" of human beings and earned for itself the status of a universal human right. There is therefore no reason why this most significant of human potentials should stay arrested for some 900 million men and women around the globe, out of whom some 200 million live in Africa.

A historical frame: adult education in Africa and in the world

From a global perspective, the world of adult education is two worlds in one. Countries of the developed world are urbanized, and have formal industrial and Hi-tech economies to which agriculture may contribute as little as 3 to 5 percent of the total GDP. They have had universal basic education for centuries. However, that has not made adult education unnecessary in developed countries. Knowledge is the lifeblood of their economies and societies, and knowledge must be made available to all citizens throughout their lives. Training and retraining for work in the formal economy has come to be central to the mission of adult education in Western countries. Political education, social education and health education constitute other important components of adult education in developed countries of the West. In the developing world, universalization of basic education has not yet happened. Illiteracy is rampant and yet programs of adult literacy promotion have been few and far between. Agriculture still employs more than half of the populations of these countries, but the rural people are unreached by adult education or by agricultural and health extension services. The rural areas in developing countries are sinking deeper and deeper into poverty.

Under colonization, the colonizer made policies for the colonized. The situation has not changed much under Globalization. Most Third World states under debt to the World Bank have become "weak" states unable to make educational policies that they normally should. Donors decide and donors have decided that developing countries should focus on primary education and not allocate resources to adult education which it is said do not bring economic returns.

Even a cursory reading of the surveys of adult education in different regions of Africa and of the case studies of different countries of the African continent would show that the adult education sector has been in comparative neglect (Draper, 1998). Whatever the ideological rhetoric of independence movements, once the leadership leading the struggle came to power, they hastily forsook their emancipatory, liberational discourse and chose the Western modernization paradigm for national development. This meant emphasis on formal economy and formal education, and neglect of the informal and subsistence economies with devastating effects on the already poor who came to be denied access to basic education and basic needs of food, health, and shelter.

With the integration of the world's economies under Globalization, the tendency towards formalization of all education and training has increased even further. Adult education programs, if and when they exist, have acquired the character of professionalization of labor rather than adult education in the classical sense of personal growth, culture-making, political participation with critical consciousness, and, of course, the ability to earn livelihood.

Thus, what is happening in the Third World in general is ever more accentuated and distorted in Africa. Newly independent African states, with a few exceptions, have failed to establish democratic states. To make matters worse, immense resources have been lost in ethnic strife, civil wars and wars between countries. Again, almost, without exception, these countries have followed the capitalist modernist model of development but without the basic infrastructures to build upon.

Corruption, incapacity to deliver, and mismanagement further aggravated the situation as debts mounted and conditionalities were imposed by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. Adult education work was put last on the national development agenda. African adult education and adult literacy projects, with few exceptions, were all funded by donors. Ironically, too many African states did not want to spend their own money on adult education. It is not an exaggeration to say that Africa, as far as adult education and adult literacy are concerned, is a wasteland with small and scarce patches of green here and there. Development itself remains a distant dream (Bhola 1998; Obanya, 1999).

Toward a fully-functional system of adult education: Building what we have

As indicated above, inventing and actualizing a future for adult education will not be a simple task. It is by no means a mere technical and professional matter. What is required is Utopian imagination, ideological commitment, and immense grit and perseverance on the part of those who pick up the challenge.

It bears repeating that before Africa could do much about adult education, it will have to adopt a new paradigm for development. The parameters of production and reproduction will have to be re-arranged. Family planning will have to be promoted and production will have to be undertaken for local consumption first and for export later. The concept of good life and the level of consumption for a life of culture and dignity will have to be redefined inside African, and not in Western terms (Sen, 1999).

The fully-functional system of adult education will have to consider all of the components and aspects of adult education, including: philosophy and ideology, theory and policy, social mobilization, organization and institution building, curriculum development, media and materials, teaching-learning encounters, training and orientation, adult education to work pathways, professional support, and evaluation (Bhola, 1994, 1998).

Philosophy and ideology

Ideology is the active aspect of philosophy. Adult educators in Africa must go farther than philosophizing to redefine their own professional identities as activists among the intelligentsia. As activists of adult education, they must reclaim President Julius K. Nyerere's ideology embedded in his impassioned plea: "First we must educate adults." Adult education is the most progressive sector of education and development as it awakens adult men and women and prepares them for "deliberative democracy" wherein the laws and policies imposed on the people can be justified to them in terms that they can reasonably understand and accept (Thompson, 1999). Contradictions between democratization and modernization must be resolved in the interests of the poor and powerless, and the poor must not be sacrificed at the altar of the Goddess of Globalization. Such ideological analyses should not remain as secret knowledge for the few but must be disseminated within the whole system of adult education from the top to the bottom and across all levels. Adult educators must engage in the critical analyses of the philosophic and ideological assumptions of adult education as claimed and proclaimed by the state and as manifested by civil society institutions: separating rhetoric from reality, pealing off layers of mystification and exposing reversals of stated ideological positions whenever those occur. Adult educators must also examine whether ideologies as proclaimed do actually inform the processes of policy making, mobilization, organization, curriculum, pedagogy, teaching training and evaluation within the total system of adult education.

Theory, policy, planning and programming

As already indicated, adult educators in Africa must assert and validate the connection between adult literacy and adult education as well as emphasize the fertile connections between knowledge and development. Theories about the mutual inter-penetration of indigenous knowledge and modern scientific-technological knowledge must be developed and tested. The role of language in the transmission of culture and as a vehicle of modernity should also be conceptualized correctly. This is important in Africa where in many countries, metropolitan languages have continued to be the languages of power and economics at the national level, and where indigenous languages are perhaps not ready to assume the role now played by metropolitan languages. Questions such as the following arise: What should be the language of literacy and adult education? How might an accommodation with, or a transition from, a mother tongue language to a national or official language be handled?

Policies must resonate to stated national ideologies and must be able to fulfil the promises embodied in the constitutional dispensations. Policy making is essentially a distributive act. The essential question is: Are the educational goods made possible by adult education, and the life chances associated with adult education, being justly distributed among individuals, ethnic groups, and other constituencies such as those of women, migrants, handicapped, and those suffering from HIV/AIDS. A comprehensive analysis of an adult education policy must ask three questions: Is the policy principled? Is the policy professionally sound? Is the policy practical (Bhola, 1997a)? In addition, policy analysts should see how these policies are integrated or interfaced with the nation's education policy, labor policy and the overall policies of economic, political, cultural and technological development.

Planning and programming are not completely separable from policy decisions. Planning shares with policy making such concerns as institution building and organization of the program. On the other hand, programming strategies may have been anticipated in policy decisions in regard to whether adult literacy will be delivered as a campaign, a program, or a project (Bhola, 1999b).

Social mobilization

Individual motivations are not spontaneous, but must be appropriately mobilized. New mass media like radio and television can play an important role in any mobilization effort, but while they are necessary to create awareness among the people, they are seldom sufficient by themselves. Face to face mobilization is a necessity. Existing cultural patterns of communication and dissemination of information must be used. Local leadership, traditional and modern, sacred and secular must be linked. Mobilization should not be separated from organization and instruction at the grassroots level. We need to ensure that mobilization remains persuasive and never becomes coercive. In the end, good instruction and opportunities for the utilization of learning is the best mobilization.

Organisation and institution building

Whatever needs to be done systematically and with some expectation of continuity needs a system of some sort (Bhola, 1995a). Such a system can have two component subsystems: the state and the civil society. What should be the sizes and functions of these two institutional sectors will depend upon time and context. Ideally civil society institutions should have local funding and local leadership. In today's world, the so-called civil society institutions may be merely local outposts of international organizations. The question of centralization and decentralization will also need to be examined afresh in each particular situations. Decentralization is not a panacea and can indeed sometimes lead to fragmentation, inappropriate deployment of resources and ultimately to failure. Top-down, bottom-up styles of decision making and administration also remain as issues, though they are never either/or choices. Voluntary work is becoming more and more difficult in areas of poverty where people must search for opportunities for income generating activities to survive from day to day. Yet, there are several examples in Africa where

volunteers have made tremendous contributions to the delivery of adult literacy and community development programs. Stakeholders of adult education should be able to engage in institutional analysis and organization development and be able to promote community-based organizations that can depend on local initiatives and voluntary work.

Curriculum Development

Adult educators have, for too long, focused on process and pedagogy of adult education and have avoided the question of *content* of adult education. This neglect of the responsibility of developing curricula to suit different groups of adult learners must end. Content must become central to the adult education enterprise.

Adult education curriculum will, of course, not be modeled on curriculum for school children. It will be curriculum to educate the adults for participation in economy, politics and culture as citizens. That should, of course, be more than voter education and vocational skills. Adults should be educated to understand how the world works in this age of Globalization; what are the limits and possibilities of development in the context of Globalization; how policies are made and whose interests those policies are serving; and they must be prepared to set and solve problems that actually confront them in their daily lives as they seek to improve the quality of lives in the context of development defined by them and for themselves. This curriculum at one level will apply to the whole of the African Continent, and on the other hand will reflect the specificities of communities and cultural contexts.

In the real world, however, adult men and women look for certificates in the vain hope of entering the formal economy. Others want a certificate of some sort to display it on the wall and have a sense of accomplishment and pride. Models of "equivalent curricula development" are now available that can be used to developed that meet the dual criteria to meet learners' real needs and yet enable them to earn qualifications (Bhola 1999a).

The necessity of special needs curricula is now being discussed in literature. It is being suggested that adult educators must develop and disseminate special programs of adult literacy that focus on "scientific literacy." While knowledge of popular science was always considered important for farmers and workers and home makers, the accelerated diffusion of technology in the world has made this need much more urgent and articulated.

Another constituency that adult educators could serve would be the middle level bureaucracy in education and development which is administering development without understanding its structure, content and processes. Not all of them are able to handle the current development lingo of empowerment, sustainability, decentralization, accountability, equity-equality, quality-standards, cost-sharing, partnerships and so on. Adult educators in the university settings could provide a significant service in running orientation courses for this constituency.

Media and materials

The new media technologies, such as the Internet, have opened up new possibilities for the delivery of knowledge for the education of adults. But it has at the same time brought us face to face with the new "digital divide" when the Internet while including more, excludes many of those without assets to connect. Adult education plans should include media and materials that the adults have access to within their means and within their communities. Folk media, print media and low-cost broadcasting should not be neglected in adult education work.

Teaching-learning encounters

Paulo Freire's method of consciousness-raising and its various adaptations have become very popular in

adult literacy and adult education. In the hands of the naive, ideology has overwhelmed pedagogy and the so called awareness has overwhelmed learning of skills. At the practical level, it has been nearly impossible to recruit, retain, and support the types of teachers needed for delivering instruction using Freirian methods. Teaching and learning encounters should be participative, but we should not forget that learners even as a collective may not already know all that they need to know to participate. Intervention and inputs from the outside may be necessary. The teacher may have to be both a facilitator of learning processes and a provider of knowledge and skills as necessary.

Training and orientation

The training of adult education teachers and other professionals must be complemented by the general orientation of politicians, policy makers and other stakeholders who may be seen as formally "outside" the sector but who must provide both leadership and resources. Their orientation should be taken as seriously as training of adult education functionaries themselves. As a rule of the thumb, three to five weeks of training and socialization for field level workers in adult literacy and adult education seems necessary.

Adult educators within the education sector may not be able to conduct income-generating activities that adults may be in great need. For this adult educators must build linkages with the already existing and often vibrant apprenticeship sectors, particularly in Africa.

From adult education to work pathways

Adult educators should anticipate pathways from the adult education center to the world of work. Work should be defined more broadly as livelihood. All those who participate in adult education programs can not be preparing to join the formal economy, expecting a paycheck at the end of the week. Many of adult learners in Africa will continue to live in the informal and subsistence economies. Their work must be made more productive and opportunities for creating such work should be expanded.

Professional support

African adult educators would need to expand the horizons of adult education research itself: doing research to illuminate practice, to inform policy, to construct theory, to invent methodology, and to review epistemological paradigms themselves. The preceding implies that research methods will have to be multiple: historical, analytical, interpretive, discursive and statistical. Mixed-methods approaches may be used within the same one research project. All of this research will not be possible to done by adult educators themselves. It would be necessary to systematically connect with academics in other disciplines such as economics, sociology, anthropology, politics, psychology and pedagogy. A research project to synthesize available dissertation research and to work out the implications of social scientific research for adult education should be undertaken on an urgent basis in each country.

Evaluation

Adult educators must build self-evaluation in all of their programs and projects. Evaluation[1], however, should not become an obsession and should not steal from already scare resources needed for program delivery and services for adults. While statistical data should be a necessary part of the management information system (MIS) of an adult education program, it will not be sufficient by itself. Information on the history, theory, policy, pedagogy, and qualitative impact of the program must always be a part of the MIS. By way of results, adult education programs must be prepared to demonstrate all the three types of impacts: impact by design, impact by interaction, and impact by emergence. In analyzing and interpreting results of adult education projects we must make a distinction between actions that are within adults' own locus and context of control, and those which are embedded in structures that only the state can intervene in to make them congenial for adult learners. (Bhola 1995b, 2000).

Conclusion

The responsibility for inventing a future for adult education in Africa lies squarely with stakeholders in and of Africa. The vanguard for the struggle will have to be the professorate of adult education in African Universities. Their task should begin with self-education. They should remain up to date with literature in the theory and practice of adult education, as well as must conduct adult education projects from within their resources and without the need to search for outside funding. Dependencies on the donors must be broken. The professorate must develop all-Africa, national, regional and local associations for adult education which adult educators can join for discourses that include both academic and policy issues[2]. The proceedings, presentations, and papers given at the meetings of such associations should be collected and published in small editions using desk-top publishing methods to be placed in appropriate locations for building knowledge bank, a tradition, a history.

Notes

1 A revival of sorts is taking place in Africa in the area of Programme Evaluation in education and development programmes. During the two years of 1998-1999, several national evaluation associations have been established or revived. For names and addresses of these evaluation association, see: xc-eval@rigel.cc.wmich.edu

2 A functioning adult education association for all-Africa supported by vibrant national adult education seems necessary. The example of the Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA), New Delhi, a body that celebrates its 60th Anniversary in the year 2000 could be a good model, which can be replicated, especially in the spirit of South-South partnership. The IAEA has 100s of affiliates in India; acts as watchdog of government policies and actions relating to adult education; it holds an annual all-India adult education conferences; undertakes adult education projects; has an impressive adult education library and a standing journal, the Indian Journal of Adult Education. A comparable and interesting example in Africa could be the Adult Literacy Organization of Zimbabwe (ALOZ), which is more than 40 years old. It has made impressive impact on the local adult education scene, especially through its own press, where literacy materials have been produced to supplement government's adult education programme provisions.

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Chapter 20

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN ADULT EDUCATION: A GERMAN VIEW OF FOCUS ON AFRICA

Heribert Hinzen

A Personal Introduction

Let me be allowed a longish personal introduction. It is intended to make clear why I am pleased to be contributing this section of the collection. It is now rather more than 25 years since I first set foot in Africa. In 1974, I took part in a conference on "Adult Education and Development" organised by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) in association with the Ministry of Education in Tanzania and other organizations. A wide range of African countries and international organizations were represented, and some of the colleagues present have remained travelling companions to this day. I was then a doctoral student at Heidelberg University which, together with the Tanzanian authorities, enabled me to work B perhaps I should say, to learn B the following year at the Research and Planning Department of the Institute of Adult Education. My dissertation, on "Adult Education and Development in Tanzania", was more than enriched by that experience on the ground. Together with Tanzanian colleagues, I then prepared a study for the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) as part of its programme of research on lifelong learning (Hinzen, Hundsdörfer, 1979).

After a phase of working in German adult education centres (*Volkshochschulen*) teaching about development issues B the world economic (dis)order, development aid and encounters between cultures B I became responsible in the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV) for cooperation with Africa, which meant consultation visits to projects and partners every year. Under the staff rotation scheme, I then went to Sierra Leone for some years in the mid-1980s as project director. I shall never forget the collection of oral literature, in the form of folk tales, fables, proverbs and songs, compiled by the People's Educational Association. A visiting professorship at the University of Sierra Leone made it possible to carry out research projects on traditional and informal education, and to teach on and review the curriculum of the degree course (Hinzen et al., 1987). Then, once more, I spent fascinating years at headquarters. In particular, this meant taking responsibility as Director of the Institute in the early 1990s for its development at a time of far-reaching and sometimes dramatic changes throughout the world, which also had an effect on our cooperation links.

In the mid-1990s I then took over the direction of our project office in Hungary, which once more gave me eye-opening experience of advising government on issues of legislation, of cooperating with numerous civil society organizations and institutions, which were simply overwhelmed by the needs of organizational development and quality assurance, and finally of researching and teaching at various universities and higher education institutions in the country. I am now back in Bonn and realise with some concern that international lobbying and support for adult education B particularly in Africa B no longer enjoy the enviable status that they require. This was made very clear to me twice this year in Africa: in February in strategic discussions with IIZ/DVV project leaders in Africa who met in Capetown, and in April in Dakar at the international conference on "Education for All", at which adult education did not receive the importance and recognition which it needs (AED, 54; 55). The presence of many African adult educators and of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) was used to take the first steps towards establishing a regional organization (PAALAE) (Diop, 2000).

These introductory remarks should make two things clear. First, despite all my efforts to give an objective

assessment, I shall probably not succeed in hiding my personal experiences and my consequent sympathy for the development of African adult education. Secondly, I cannot in the space available to me refer as is suggested in my title to all forms of international cooperation in Africa, or even to all the German organizations involved. Rather, I shall concentrate on those areas in which the IIZ/DVV and its partners are working.

Adult Education International: GOs and NGOs

The UNESCO International Conferences, which have taken place approximately every 12 years since 1949 in Elsinore, Montreal, Tokyo, Paris and Hamburg, have definitely been milestones in the development of international governmental cooperation. The particular needs of developing countries were addressed for the first time in 1960 during decolonization. Tokyo must be seen in the context of the General Conference of 1976 in Nairobi. Its Recommendations on the Development of Adult Education coincided with an international wave of professionalization, which had already become apparent in many countries in legislation and degree courses to train adult educators. As often happens with such developments, however, it is difficult to disentangle cause and effect. There is certainly plenty of evidence for a reverse process, whereby international recommendations influenced national governments in their attitudes and decisions.

Tokyo was important for another decisive development. It was attended by adult educators such as Roby Kidd from Canada, Paul Mhaiki from Tanzania and Helmuth Dolff from Germany, who discussed on the fringes of the conference how non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and adult education associations might join together professionally in order to strengthen lobbying and public information. At that time, the European Association for Adult Education (EAEA), founded in 1953, and the Asian Pacific Bureau for Adult Education (ASPBAE), founded in 1964, were already in existence. The ICAE was set up in 1973, with its headquarters in Canada. The ups and downs of its history are well documented, its world assemblies in Dar es Salaam, Buenos Aires, Paris, Bangkok and Cairo being milestones (Hall, 2000).

A few quotations will demonstrate the influence of a number of statements at various stages on our ideas and activities. They vary in character: the first two are taken from the relevant UNESCO recommendations, and the last is from a document in the drafting of which the IIZ/DVV was closely involved. And lastly, it should be remembered that this Institute jointly prepared the working group on international cooperation for the 1997 Hamburg conference with UIE, and published the discussion papers in advance in a special issue of this journal for all participants.

- "Cooperation was not to be confused with a process of 'westernizing' the whole of mankind; the developing countries, in trying to find a means of projecting their own historical identity, must offer alternative ways of life and new scales of values. ... Special assistance should be concentrated on specific projects which were likely to have lasting effects. It should pay more attention to the creation of infrastructures and to the training of people to train others than to direct intervention." (UNESCO, 1972)

- "Care should be taken to ensure that international cooperation does not take the form of mere transfer of structures, curricula, methods and techniques which have originated elsewhere, but consists rather in promoting and stimulating development within the countries concerned, through the establishment of appropriate institutions and well-coordinated structures adapted to the particular circumstances of those countries." (UNESCO, 1976)

- "Governments must provide the frameworks; but the necessary multiplicity of all actors must be recognised and become part of new international partnerships for North-South, East-West, South-

> South and North-North cooperation. Governments, NGOs, ordinary citizens and civil society in all its variety (e.g. business, trades unions, the media, religious, political and cultural groups) must be fully involved. ... Commitment to advocacy about the potential of adult learning must be accompanied to reduce the growing inequalities resulting from globalization." (Fordham, 1997b)

The last term is of great importance. A wave of globalization is rolling over us in many social fields, and thought is being given to what these development mean for adult education (Walters, 1997). This is significant at national and international level. Will there be such a thing as "global players" in adult education, as elsewhere? What will they be able to achieve without being overstretched? Individualization and the new media are other key terms associated with self-organized forms of learning that are of particular importance to those who work in adult education. Far-reaching changes are in evidence. The change of paradigm from education to learning is one of them. This is apparent in the World Education Report (UNESCO, 2000), which adopts this perspective not only as an "expanded vision", but also in terms of provision and statistical data. It is equally apparent in the creation of so-called knowledge or learning societies, in which between 15% and 50% of the adult population in the industrialized countries B depending on the level of development of the society and of the education system B take part each year in some form of organized learning (Bélanger, Valdivielso, 1997).

IIZ/DVV: Professionalism and International Solidarity

We are often asked what sort of institution we are when we describe ourselves as specialist partners who can also provide financial support, at least as seed money. "What is your mandate, and what are your aims?" are often supplementary questions. So here is a brief summary.

It is certainly no exaggeration to say that every adult in Germany has heard of adult education centres (*Volkshochschulen*, VHS). They are local institutions of continuing education which make provision for general and vocational, political and cultural education. The figures for 1999 show that there were then 997 VHS with more than 3500 branches, which covered the entire country. Around ten million young people and adults attend VHS each year. Of these, 6.6 million attend regular courses (e.g. languages, computing or health), and 2.5 million single events and lectures, while the VHS also arrange excursions and study visits, and function as exhibition and communication centres. The first major wave of VHS were founded in Germany in 1919, when the democratic constitution of the Weimar Republic contained a passage about adult education being given state and local authority funding. After the Second World War, Land adult education associations were set up (there are now 16, one for every federal Land or province), and these joined together in 1953 to form the DVV. At a regional and national level, these associations represent the interests of the VHS, which have had both a local and a transnational and international dimension from the outset.

In the early 1960s, international work started in Africa, and shortly afterwards in Latin America and finally in Asia in the mid-1970s. Initially, activities were organized through a Department, and latterly through a separate Institute, the IZZ/DVV. These have both been guided by principles laid down by the Executive Board of the Association. These guidelines have been amended on a number of occasions in response to changes in the world, and eventually complemented by specific principles for work in Europe in the wake of the historic changes of the early 1990s.

These remarks are intended to make clear that the IIZ/DVV is not a donor organization. The focus is rather on specialist expertise, backed by what is probably the largest specialist continuing education association in Germany. This is not to minimize the achievements of the many other sponsors and providers of German adult education; rather, it should be stressed that we have a plural system, in which differing institutions operate in what is frequently a combination of cooperation and competition between state,

publicly funded, university, private and religious institutions, including NGOs. The significance of the VHS and the DVV in German adult education is ultimately also the reason why they are supported by the Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). Together with other specialist organizations such as Caritas, the Kolping Association, and the Workers' Welfare Assocation, the BMZ helps to fund our work of fostering social structures for youth and adult education. These sponsors are now working increasingly closely together in the Social Structure Association (AGS). Other sources of funding are the Foreign Office and the European Union (EU).

Some important documents were quoted above which emerged from the UNESCO International Conferences on Adult Education. Once again it is an open question whether joint, differing or similar positions were developed in parallel or contemporaneously, without influencing each other, or reinforced one another, following or producing a common trend. The early and later guidelines for the international work of the DVV contained indeed the following provisions:

* "The DVV involvement in adult education in Africa, Asia and Latin America is the result of awareness that development can not take place without education. ... We reject the idea of transferring western educational structures to these countries. Decisions about the organisation, contents and methods of adult education can only be taken by the countries themselves." (Hinzen et al., 1982)
* "As a professional adult education association in a large industrial country, and aware of the moral foundation for its solidarity with peoples in Africa, Asia and Latin America, DVV offers its assistance and cooperation to adult education organisations. DVV does not consider itself to be a donor organization, but rather a professional partner which can contribute its long years of experience in the field and its numerous international contacts to supplement the expertise, comprehensive knowledge and grasp of local conditions, and dedication brought into the partner relationship by its national counterparts." (Hinzen ed., 1994b)

These are indications of only some of the main points in a lengthy document. As is stated in the Institute's current information leaflet, the present guidelines "stress that:

* adult education is an important component of lifelong learning, providing orientation and training and leading to qualifications;
* it has a liberating function in the development of individuals and society;
* its goals, contents, forms and methods are determined by history and culture;
* the ultimate moral basis of the work is solidarity with the development aspirations of people in the partner countries;
* the goals for the work, which must be of a professional standard, are set jointly through partnership and participatory cooperation...

IIZ/DVV cooperation with its partners therefore stresses support for sponsoring bodies, skills development and quality assurance:

* promoting the initial and inservice training of adult educators;
* fostering practice-oriented evaluation and research;
* encouraging the development of relevant teaching and learning materials;
* providing support for the institutional and material infrastructure;
* advising on organisational development; and
* helping to ensure that adult education receives political recognition and guaranteed status as a part of education." (IIZ/DVV, 2000)

The Institute is today arranged in regional programme areas B Africa, Asia, Latin America and Europe B

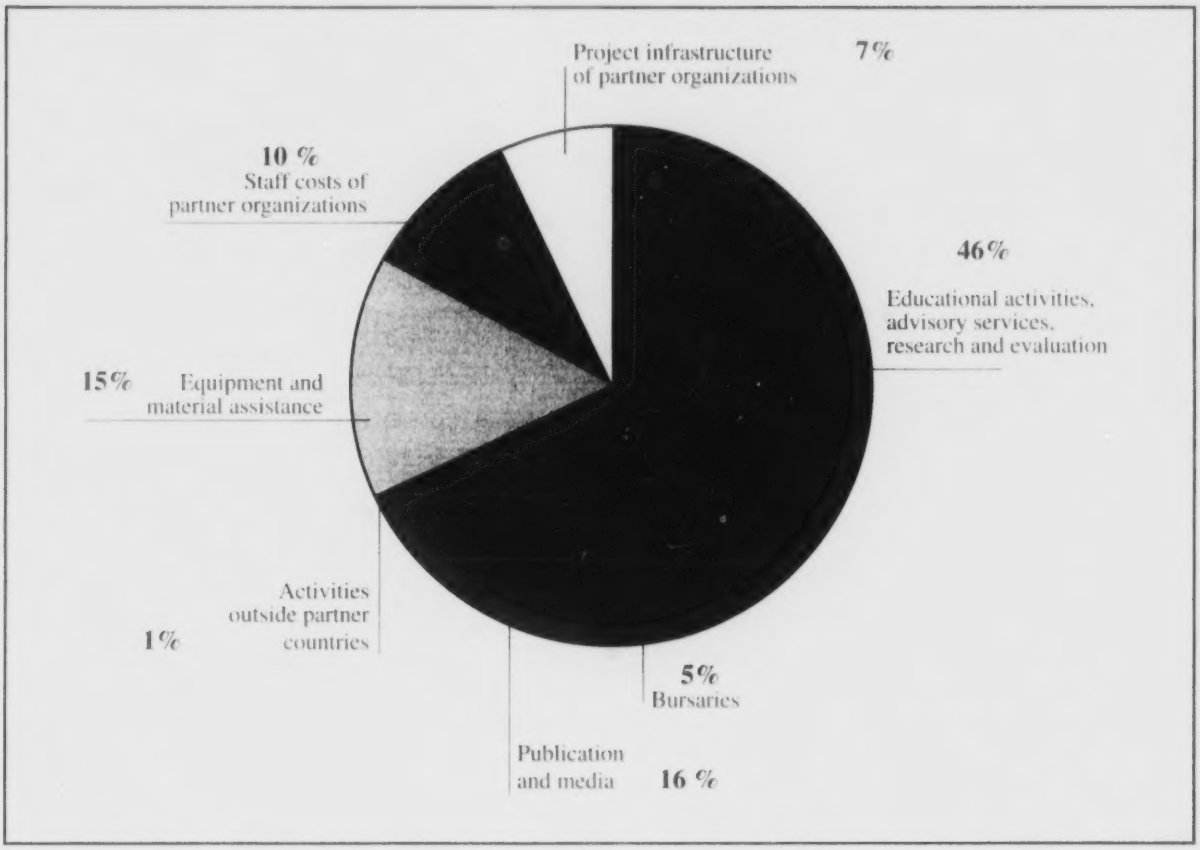
each with its own individual and regional projects. Some examples are the national project in Mexico, or the project to strengthen adult education in Southeast Europe under the Stability Pact. There are also sectoral projects on initial and inservice training, information and communication, international professional exchanges, and development education in German VHS. A fuller description would show that the number of projects and partners supported by the IIZ/DVV is many times greater than the number of places where we have our own local project offices. The number of staff available is at present (October 2000) more than 90 persons, slightly more than was at the end of last year (data taken from our yearly report 1999 in the next three figures):

Table 1: Number of Staff at IIZ/DVV Bonn and in Project Offices

Number	Location	Field staff	Local	Education/ Research	Adminis-tration	Techn. Supp.	Male	Female	Full-time	Part-time
23	IIZ/DVV Bonn	-	23	6	12	5	7	16	15	8
64	Project offices	10	54	18	27	19	28	36	52	12
87	Total	**10**	**77**	**24**	**39**	**24**	**35**	**52**	**67**	**20**

It is equally important to look at how the funds available are used. It will doubtless be helpful to clarify what exactly is covered by the term cooperation, or at least what is subsumed under it in this paper. Information and communication, expanded contacts and mutual exchanges of ideas, are certainly types of cooperation. But partnerships and projects, networks, groupings of associations and joint memberships take it much further and deeper. All of this can take very differing forms, depending on whether they involve state, civil society or university bodies. Cooperation looks different again if these international approaches are considered in the light of local, transnational, national, regional or continental initiatives. There are plenty of examples of such designations in our work. In describing them, shall base my remarks here on an evaluation carried out in 1999 which focused on the use of funds.

Figure 1: Distribution of Programme Funding by Application



This demonstrates that two thirds of funds go to support partners' immediate educational activities; by far the largest proportion is accounted for by initial and inservice training through seminars and conferences, and by the scholarship programme. Multipliers are the most important target group. Considerable importance is also given to a wide variety of types of media production. Even so, the proportion devoted to support for partners' staffing and material needs, and to their infrastructure, should not be underestimated.

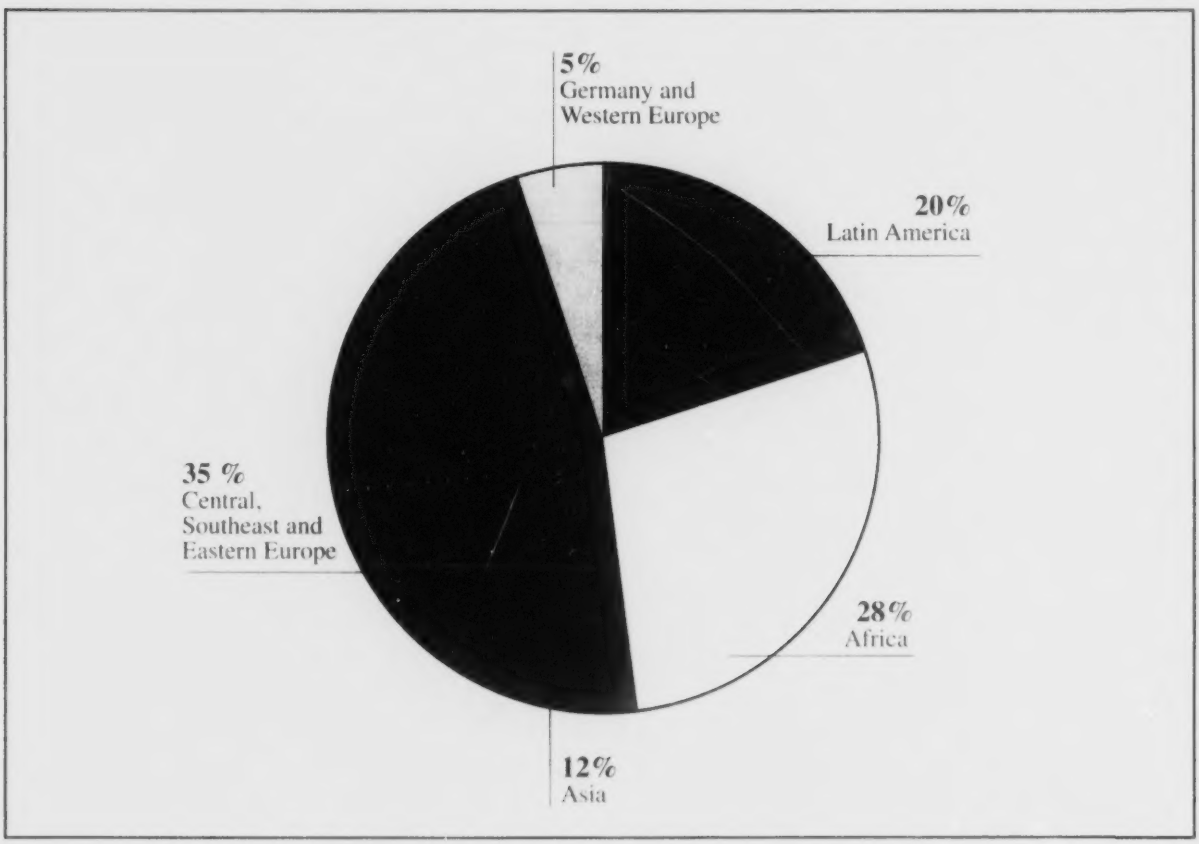
Africa: Still a IIZ/DVV Priority

An African colleague asked me recently: "Why is the IIZ/DVV doing so little now in Africa? Have you lost interest in us?" Admittedly, this came from one of our longer-standing partners in a country where we used to work more extensively but were then obliged to close our project office because of a civil war. It was not easy to give an answer, largely because this was linked with a desire for renewed cooperation, which we would like to see begin again tomorrow if it were possible.

Regional Breakdown of Funding

A few facts first of all. The following figure shows the regional breakdown of our international cooperation in 1999:

Figure 2: Assistance by Region



Around two thirds of cooperation funds are directed towards the continents of Africa, Asia and Latin America, with the largest single percentage going to Africa. It is also evident, however, that approximately one third of cooperation funds are directed towards Central and Eastern European countries. If we compare the figures for 1989 and 1979, these are seen to be far lower and to cover appreciably fewer countries. This expansion reflects the global effects of the collapse of the Eastern bloc. The IIZ/DVV seized the opportunities that were opened up and built up or further developed contacts with existing and newly founded partner organizations. It should be stressed at this point that it would not have been possible at any time to divert to developing countries the funds made available by Ministries and the EU for projects in the countries in transition of Central and Eastern Europe. The funds needed in developing countries have had to be raised additionally.

No one in this Institute would maintain that the funds available today for Africa can be said to bear any relation to actual need. On the other hand, it can be stated with some justification, and perhaps even with pride, that we still have more funds available in absolute figures for conventional development work than at the start of the last decade. That is small comfort, since we realize that official development assistance will, with few exceptions, never reach the targets set by donor countries themselves (such as the almost rhetorical 0.7% of Gross Domestic Product). It will be difficult for us and our partners to make good the further cuts that are expected in the German Federal budget. We thus face a very real threat.

Countries and Projects

The Annual Report for 1999 provides useful information in this area as well. It sets out the links between countries and types of project, insofar as this can be encapsulated in a few key phrases. Any interested reader can easily consult fuller descriptions of projects and partners, or studies and evaluations:

Table 2: **IIZ/DVV Countries, Projects and Areas of Focus in Africa**

S/No.	Country	Areas of focus and main activities
1	Angola	NGO training in participatory methods
2	Cameroon	Training of teams of trainers of co-operative movements
3	Chad	Organisational development for women's self-help groups
4	Ethiopia	Nonformal basic education and training to raise level of income
5	Ghana	Improving income-generating skills for women's groups.
6	Guinea	Training for local self-government and organisational development.
7	Kenya	Publications for adult education staff.
8	Lesotho	Support for self-help organisations
9	Madagascar	Networking of adult education institutions and training of local leaders.
10	Sierra Leone	Literacy and peace education
11	South Africa	Strengthening of national and regional adult education associations.
12	Uganda	Functional programme, income generation and self-help

It should be said that the form taken by cooperation varies widely in the individual countries mentioned. There are IIZ/DVV project offices in Angola, Ethiopia, Guinea and South Africa, each with a professional member of staff sent from Germany and additional local staff. In Madagascar, there is a project office with a local coordinator and staff, and in Sierra Leone there are partnership agreements which have grown out of many years of cooperation with the IIZ/DVV.

A comparison of IIZ/DVV projects and partner countries in Africa at ten-year intervals reveals that there have been many changes and developments:

- In 1989 there were IIZ/DVV project offices in the then Congo (Brazzaville), in Madagascar, Sierra Leone and Somalia; work was also focused on Tanzania, Zambia and Uganda; and the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education (AALAE) was a major cooperation partner. In addition, universities in Botswana, Lesotho, Nigeria, Swaziland and Zimbabwe were involved in the scholarship programme. Most of these countries were also represented by participants in the summer course for African adult educators, which made it possible to provide information and to exchange ideas about the development of adult education in Germany, and let the two sides learn about each other.
- In 1979, there were project offices in Ghana (which also functioned as a regional office), and in the People's Republic of Congo; in Somalia, support was provided for both nonformal education, and a youth centre in the south of the country; in Tanzania, we were working with the Institute of Adult Education, and preparations were being made for cooperation in the Sudan and Zambia.

Scholarships at African Universities

Anyone familiar with the work of the IIZ/DVV over several decades will know that systematic initial and inservice training of African adult educators goes back to the origins of our international cooperation as a whole. The one-year course held at the Göhrde Residential Adult Education Centre between 1963 and 1972 for approximately 20 people per year provided the first thorough grounding for a total of 224 participants from 18 countries who were already working, or would in future be working in adult

education. (Madagascar, the Sudan, Kenya, Ghana, Zaire and Somalia were the countries most frequently represented.) This was the era of decolonization in Africa, when considerable importance was attached to educational aid and training for professionals.

Despite the positive recognition enjoyed by the training given at Göhrde, after ten years the call for fundamental changes became ever clearer. These changes were discussed and eventually introduced in the early 1970s. A major precondition for rapid widespread development was the establishment and development of courses at African universities that would provide initial and inservice training for adult educators that was closely related to practice. Overall support was given for this in association with the adult education departments of local universities, largely in the member countries of the Commonwealth through British development aid, and frequently as an addition or an adjunct to our efforts. It should therefore not come as a surprise that when we carried out an evaluation in the mid-1990s, we put together a team of six people representing a good mixture of African and European colleagues, university staff and practitioners, women and men (Fordham, 1997a). We are still working on implementing their recommendations, which suggest, among other tasks:

* greater support for students' practical work
* continual monitoring and regular evaluation
* types of support that go beyond the award of scholarships
* revision of curricula and new courses
* further training for university teaching staff
* provision of specialist literature and equipment for the institutions involved.

Data for 1999 can be found in Table 2. Each year, over 500 scholarships are generally awarded at around ten institutions in Africa. This is a large number, amounting in the last five years alone to a total of 3277 recipients. It is quite right that the Institute is considering, together with university partners in Africa and the funding Ministry, how to investigate what these graduates are now doing and how they regard their training in retrospect. This might also contribute to improvement of courses and retraining of staff.

Table 3: **Statistical Summary of IIZ/DVV Sponsored Scholarships (1994-1999)**

Partner Institution	*Country Course*	*Type of*	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*	*1997*	*1998*	1999	Total
Department of Adult Education (DAE), Gaborone	Botswana	Diploma Bachelor	3	3 2	6 2	8 1	6	5	31 5
Institute of Adult Education (IAE), Legon	Ghana	Certif./Dipl. Master	54 1		69	70	65		258 1
Institut Panafricain pour le Développement (IPD), Douala	Cameroon	Short Courses	17	12	32	30	31	11	133
College of Education and External Studies (CEES), Kikuyu	Kenya	Diploma				10	20	50	80
Institute of Extra-Mural Studies (IEMS), Maseru	Lesotho	Certificate/ Diploma	150	195	158	61	86	100	750
Department of Adult and Nonformal Education (DANFE), Windhoek	Namibia	Diploma Bachelor						40 8	40 8
Department of Adult Education, Ibadan	Nigeria	Diploma		7					7
Instititute of Adult Education and Extra-Mural Studies (INSTADEX), Inst. of African Studies (IAS) etc., Freetown	Sierra Leone	Certificate/ Diploma	86	101	70	70	34	40	401
Centre for Adult and Continuing Education (CACE), W. Cape Centre for Adult Education (CAE), Pietermaritzburg Peninsula Technikon (PENTEC), C.T. Centre for Extra-Mural Studies(CEMS) University of Capetown	South Africa	Certif./Dipl. Certif./Dipl. Var. Courses Certificate		70 31 20	200 30	108 28 20	100 62 21	82 52 23 27	560 203 84 27
Division of Extra-Mural Studies (DEMS), Kwaluzeni	Swaziland	Certif./Dipl.	59	55	60	34			208
Institute of Adult Education (IAE), Dar-es-Salaam	Tanzania	Certificate Diploma	10 17	47	49	24			10 137
Department of Adult Education and Extension Studies (DAEES), Lusaka	Zambia	Certif./Dipl.	8	10	12	7	10		47
Department of Adult Education (DAE), Harare	Zimbabwe	Diploma	114		20	38	46	69	287
Grand Total			***519***	***553***	***708***	***509***	***481***	***507***	***3.277***

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A look at our first Annual Report, for 1999, reveals also that:

1. in Ghana, a yet more practice-oriented part-time certificate course has been introduced in addition to the degree course,
2. in Uganda, the distance course is organized by the National Adult Education Association, while the first degree course is awarded by the state Nsamizi Training Institute for Social Development, and the new Master's degree by the Institute of Adult and Continuing Education of Makerere University,
3. in Ethiopia, a new first degree course is being established at Jimma Teachers' College,
4. in Madagascar, the first ever degree course is being launched at Fianarantsoa University as a series of weekend seminars, and the Association Malagasy pour l'Education is involved in developing the course,
5. in Namibia, four new courses are being offered on the basis of needs assessments carried out by the Department of Non-formal Education of the University.

We are continuing our efforts to achieve a greater exchange of information, curriculum designs and materials among African universities, including the use of the Internet.

The Journal Adult Education and Development

I am tempted to ask what African adult educator is not familiar with this, since our distribution list has been systematically expanding since it first appeared in 1973. There were then two reasons that led us to launch a journal. First, it was to serve as a follow-up point of contact for those who had taken part in the one-year course in Germany, and secondly, it was to support early project work on the ground. Today it is probably the professional journal of adult education with the widest international distribution, both reporting on broad themes of concern to our projects and providing project support, and offering a forum for the more general exchange of information and discussion of the theory and practice of adult education throughout the world. The total print run in all three languages, English, French and Spanish, is over 20,000. Special issues appear as supplements. Two tables will provide an overview. Table 3 shows the evolution of subscription figures over the years; it also reveals that more than half of all copies go to Africa. A second point to be noted is that around 88% go to developing countries, and about 12% to the industrialized countries.

Table 4: **Summary of the geographical distribution figures for the journal**

Continent / Year	1975	1980	1989	1999
Africa	1,702	3,116	6,889	9,936
Asia	461	2,019	3,227	3,687
Latin America	381	1,354	2,053	3,015
Europe, USA, Japan, Australia	713	734	1,243	2,102
Total	**3,257**	**7,223**	**13,412**	**18,740**

If we look at the question of where the journal goes in Africa, then the statistics show that it is distributed to a total of 55 countries. Of these, the 15 countries with the largest numbers of subscribers are: Ghana 976, Nigeria 963, Rep. Dem. du Congo 928, South Africa 915, Uganda 475, Kenya 442, Tanzania 414, Sierra Leone 388, Senegal 370, Ethiopia 342, Cameroon 316, Madagascar 313, Mauritius 223, Zambia 217 and Togo 185. It would no doubt be interesting to explore two other questions: how often does the journal discuss adult education in Africa, and how are African colleagues represented in terms of authorship?

The Outlook for the Institute

If one is writing about one's own work and an institution which one heads oneself, many of the remarks and assessments may look like self-justification. This is not easily avoided, and can perhaps only be held in check by reflection. Readers must judge whether I have succeeded. This will naturally be easiest for those who have worked with us over the years in one way or another, as staff of our partner organizations, in our project offices, as participants in various events, subscribers to the journal or recipients of scholarships. For many, this will be associated with particular points in their lives. However, it is also obvious that overviews such as this are often written not merely for the purpose of retrospective justification. What is of more concern is future international cooperation, although this is never without a past and a present, on which it must build.

It would have been fascinating to discuss in equal detail other, new types of international cooperation with African partners which differ from the that of the IIZ/DVV. It would be particularly interesting to examine more closely the practice of REFLECT and ActionAid in the field of literacy (Archer and Cottingham, 1996), and we shall probably want to do this at a later date as we are now preparing a consortium bid for EU funding for literacy in South Africa. It may still be too early to explore the new World Bank initiatives in basic education in some African countries (stretching from Mozambique, via Uganda as far as Guinea) since these are in the very early stages; this would be of particular interest to us in relation to Uganda, for example, where colleagues from long-standing partners of the IIZ/DVV will be involved in preparatory studies (Okech et al., 1999), or to Guinea, because we have an IIZ/DVV project office there. Maybe there are signs of a rethink in institutions which have in the past been severely criticized for their importance and impact in Africa (Youngman, 2000). At all events, the attempt to demonstrate that nonformal education for young people and adults can do as much for development as basic education in schools, and hence that investments in both sectors are worthwhile, opens up interesting prospects for future education and development (Oxenham, Aoki, 2000). The speech by the President of the World Bank during the World Forum in Dakar, and other interventions in response, may be pointing in a positive direction. It may be that the abbreviation of "Education for All", EFA, will no longer mean "Except for Adults" in future, as was surmised by the General Secretary of ASPBAE (Almazan-Khan, 2000).

From the point of view of the Institute, it seemed a good idea to contribute a paper of our own to this volume because cooperation with and support for adult education in Africa are not just one of the starting points for the international activities of the IIZ/DVV in the early 1960s. I also wanted to emphasise that they continue to be a priority today. The continuing and wide-ranging contacts made by the IIZ/DVV in Africa have been explored in "Adult Education Chronologies" (Draper, 1998), and not just in relation to Ghana, Lesotho and Nigeria. In the history of how this volume of collected papers came into being, reference is made to earlier published overviews with a similar purpose which were intended to enhance practice in African adult education, without neglecting reflections on theory (Bown, Tomori, 1979). Since the contributors are from many different countries, indirect issues are raised relating to comparison and cooperation, and to the relationship between them. This has meant looking at similarities, commonalities and differences in the respective aims, activities and realizations of adult education. A knowledge of these differing background situations is a crucial requirement for enhanced and expanded cooperation. The Institute was rightly involved in previous attempts to capture international cooperation in overviews and retrospective assessments (Cassara, 1995). This volume is hence part of a certain tradition, to which we hope to have added on this occasion also.

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SECTION V: ANNOTATION OF SCHOLARLY WORKS

Chapter 21: An Annotatel Bibliography of 44 Selected Works of Jones A. Akinpelu
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Chapter 21

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF 44 SELECTED WORKS OF JONES AKINPELU

Sabo A.Indabawa

Introduction

This book is dedicated to Professor Jones A. Akinpelu, for his unique contribution to the development of adult and continuing education in Africa. This dedication is justified since Professor Jones A. Akinpelu has made more than a modest contribution to the discipline and practice of adult and continuing education in Africa. Here, 44 of his scholarly works are annotated. In doing this annotation, the chapter is organised in four sections consisting of an introduction, a biographical note on the author, an annotation of 44 of his works and a conclusion.

A biographical note on Jones A. Akinpelu

Professor Jones Adelayo Akinpelu was born on November 8, 1936 at Ibadan, Oyo State of Nigeria. He completed his basic education career in three different schools between 1942 and 1954. He proceeded to the then University College Ibadan (U.C.I.) for Bachelors degree (Hons.) in Latin and Masters degree in Classics of the University of London, from 1955 to 1963. In 1967, he enrolled for a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree programme in Philosophy of Education, at the Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, USA. He completed the programme in 1970.

His teaching career commenced in 1963 at the University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), Ile Ife. He left Ife in 1972 and joined the Department of Adult Education University of Ibadan as Senior Lecturer in Philosophy of Education, including adult education. He rose to the rank of a full Professor at Ibadan in 1980. From Ibadan, he joined the University of Botswana as Founding Professor and Director, Centre for Continuing Education in 1994. He served in that capacity at University of Botswana until retirement in November 1999. At both institutions, he served in almost all important committees and structures. At Ibadan, he had served as Head, Department of Adult Education on several occasions. He also served and Dean, Faculty of Education and Provost, the College of Education[1].

Professor Akinpelu's contribution to adult and continuing education are numerous. Among them are the following:

- Initiated the development of 'a philosophy of adult education in Africa' through teaching and research;
- served as external examiner to 15 Universities in Africa;
- supervised 74 master degree theses;
- supervised 11 doctorate degree theses;
- holds 12 memberships of professional associations worldwide;
- held editorial membership of 14 scholarly journals in Africa, Europe ad North America;
- assessed many candidates for appointment or promotion to Professorial posts in different institutions in Africa; and
- performed several community services and consultancies.

In fact, it was in recognition of his sterling leadership roles and impact on the lives of many people in the wider African community that his own community conferred on him two important traditional chieftaincy

titles.

Above all, Professor Akinpelu has produced a pool of more than 162 outstanding and quality intellectual works. These works are mainly in the area of adult and continuing education in Africa. The works are produced in forms of books, chapters in books, articles in refereed journals, technical reports and unpublished theses and papers. Several of these are accessed and used by the larger audience of adult and continuing education scholars, practitioners, policy makers, researchers and students in Africa and beyond. Here, a selection of 44 of his works are annotated.

The annotation

The annotation contains 44 selected works. This consists of 6 books, which he authored, co-authored, edited or co-edited; 9 chapters in books; 13 articles in journals; 6 technical reports and 10 titles of theses and unpublished paper.

A : Books

1. Akinpleu, J.A.(1981) ***An Introduction to Philosophy of Education*** London: Macmillan, 252 pp.
This is a seminal book which pioneers the discussion of philosophy of education from an African perspective. It was published under the Macmillan Studies in Nigerian Education Series. The book is divided into six chapters. Although all these have significant value for adult education, the most relevant seem to be chapters 5 and 6. These examined 'educational concepts and issues' which easily apply to adult education.

2. Akinpelu, J.A.(1983) **Relevance in Education** Ibadan : UIP, 35pp.
This was the Inaugural lecture which the author presented after his promotion to the rank of a full Professor at Ibadan. The material discussed the timely issue of relevance in education. Timely because, Nigeria had just adopted a 'new' national policy on education which was based on the belief that the colonial system of education it inherited was not relevant to local conditions, realities and interests. But there was hardly any clarity on the concept of 'relevance'. The book then became a major reference work on the issue not only in Nigeria but in other parts of Africa as well.

3. Akinpelu, J.A.(1988) ***Introduction to Philosophy of Adult Education*** Ibadan: UIP, 105 pp.
This book was produced under the University of Ibadan External Studies Programme Series. In six chapters, key aspects of the application of philosophy to adult education were examined. These are, About philosophy; Modes and relevance of philosophy to adult education; Analysis of concepts in adult education; Values in Adult Education; Teaching-learning process in adult education and Men and ideas in adult education.

4. Akinpelu, J.A.,Okedara, J.T., Omolewa, M.A. eds.(1988) ***Language and Adult Education: Essays in Honour of S.H.O.Tomori*** Ibadan : UIP, 176pp.
This book is a collection of 10 chapters dealing with various aspects of language issues and their application to adult education theory and practice. Some of the key issues discussed are relevance of curriculum; community development; and concept and practice of continuing education, and an annotation of the works of Tomori on language and adult education.

5. Akinpelu,J.A.,Omolewa, M.A. eds.(1989) ***Forty Years of Adult Education at Ibadan :*** Ibadan : UIP, 201pp.
The book is a compilation of 10 chapters in which various contributors reviewed the founding and development of the Department of Adult Education at the University of Ibadan from 1949 to

1989. The book was published at a time when the Department had won the UNESCO International Reading Association Literacy award. This was a great event since no Department of Adult Education has ever won the prestigious award since its inception.

6. Akinpelu, J.A.(1997) ***Equity and Quality in University Continuing Education*** Gaborone: University of Botswana, 28pp.
This work is a published Inaugural Address delivered at the University of Botswana. The material helped to shed light on the concepts and practice of University continuing education. The piece offers justification for public investment in continuing education as important outreach activity in Africa.

B: Chapters in books

7. Akinpelu, J.A.(1979) *"Trends and problems"* in Bown, L.and Tomori, S.H.O. eds.***A Handbook of Adult Education for West Africa*** London : Hutchinson Publishing Company, pp.223-240.
The chapter examines the trends and problems in the development of adult education as an emerging discipline and a field of practice. The chapter argues that although the discipline has come along way, a lot more effort is needed to strengthen it in the years ahead.

8. Akinpelu, J.A.(1983) *"Philosophy and adult education"*in Bown, L. and Okedara, J.T. eds. ***An Introduction to the Study of Adult Education: A Multi-Disciplinary and Cross-Cultural Approach for Developing Countries*** Ibadan: UPL,73-91pp.
This is a major intellectual contribution that examines the interface between adult education theory and practice, the nature of philosophy and analysis of adult education concepts, particularly the concept of 'adult education' itself, which isarguably "...one of the most tenuous and important concepts that are rather vague and whose criteria of usage are as yet unestablished"(Akinpelu, 1983: 77-78). Also examined are, philosophical assumptions behind adult education, analysis of aims and objectives, philosophies of adult education and analysis of issues and problems in adult education.

9. Akinpelu, J. A. and Omolewa, M. A. (1982) *"Towards mass literacy: Development and programmes"* in FGN, ***Towards the National Mass Literacy Campaign*** Lagos: FME, pp.34-41.
This essay dealt with the planning of the 1982-1992 National mass literacy programme in Nigeria. It specifically argues a case for proper programme planning and development focused on achieving the goal of reducing adult illiteracy to aid the pace of sustainable national development.

10. Akinpelu, J.A.(1987) *"The University, Government and Adult Education"* in Oduaran, A.B. and Eheazu, B.A. eds. ***Issues in Adult and Community Development Education*** Benin: NNCAE, pp.47-56.
In this chapter, the author explores a key issue of state intervention in adult education. The chapter pointed to specific roles and responsibilities of Universities, especially in the areas of human resource development and training, research and community service. The government's roles are also indicated. It concluded that roles and responsibilities have to be improved for a more efficient delivery of adult education programmes and service that would accelerate the pace of national development.

11. Akinpelu, J.A.(1988) *"The problem of relevance in adult education"* in Akinpelu, J.A., Okedara, J.T.and Omolewa, M.A.eds. ***Language and Adult Education*** Ibadan: UIP, pp.27-43.
The chapter sheds some light on the question of relevance of adult education content or

curriculum, offered to learners. The contentious issue of which word would best describe the content of learning in adult education between curriculum and programme was examined in detail. Also considered is the problem of multi-variety and diversity of adult education activities and the application of curriculum at the micro-level. The author then pointed out that the problem of relevance has to be addressed through:

> "A combination of both the psychological/subjective and the logically socially useful criteria (to) produce the type of relevance desirable in adult education programmes..."(Akinpelu, 1988:41).

12. Akinpelu, J.A. and Osuji, S.N.(1988) *"The Department at Forty: An Overview"* in Akinpelu, J.A.et al eds. ***Forty Years of Adult Education at Ibadan*** UIP, pp.13-23.
In this chapter, Jones and his former student and the first Ph.D. graduate in adult education at Ibadan joined in appraising the historical development of the Department. The authors interrogated the trend of the development of the Department in three phases namely; the beginnings(1949-1965), years of ferment(1960-1963) and maturing years(1965-1989). The narration is lucid and the account detailed. All adult educators will be well advised to read the entire book for information on the emergence of university adult education in Africa.

13. Akinpelu, J.A.(1994) *"Education for special groups"* in Akinkugbe, O.O. ed. ***Nigeria and Education: The Challenges Ahead*** Ibadan : Spectrum Books Ltd., pp. 158-190.
The chapter raised focal issues about the roles which education can play in rectifying exclusion of some disadvantaged groups including women and adult non-literates, from taking full advantage of opportunities in society. On the basis of the appraisal, strategies for main streaming of these groups were offered.

14. Akinpelu, J.A.(1996) *"Philosophy of education"* in Abosi, C.O. and Kandjii-Murangi, I. eds. ***Education in Botswana*** Gaborone : Macmillan Company Ltd., pp.42-63.
This chapter is another explication on basic philosophical concepts and issues and their application to education including adult education. Although the analysis and illustrations were localised, they could also apply to wider Southern African context and Africa as well.

15. Akinpelu, J.A.(1996) *"Upgrading of teachers by the distance learning system"* in Charakupa, R.et al eds. ***Botswana: Challenges for Quality Education into the Twenty First Century*** Gaborone: Ministry of Education, pp. 183-191.
This chapter explores a fast-growing area of alternative adult and continuing education in the Southern African region. The case of how the distance and open learning system can be used in promoting teacher education is demonstrated. This discussion easily indicates another area of diversified integration between formal and nonformal education, especially within the African context.

C : Articles in Journals

16. Akinpelu, J.A.(1974) *"Educative processes in non-literate societies: An essay in the anthropological foundations of education"* in ***West Africa Journal of Education*** vol. xviii, no.3, pp.413-422.
This essay discussed an old issue in the adult education discourse in Africa, that of traditional mode of doing it. The discussion offered reasons why this important aspect of education should feature in the foundations studies. It will help to understand the cultural realities and the context

of education within it.

17. Akinpelu, J.A(1976) *"The philosophy of lifelong education and the certificate racket"* in Adult Education in Nigeria vol. 1, no.1, pp.13-14.
This article addressed the alternate relevance of lifelong learning to solving what Ronald Dore (1976) called ' diploma disease', a prevalent practice of searching for paper qualification that led to sharp unethical conduct in most parts of Africa and the developing world. Perhaps, this was an initial advocacy of the nonformal option as a response to the crises generated by formal education for African societies.

18. Akinpelu, J.A (1977) *"The case for adopting literacy concept to the needs of rural areas"* in ***Adult Education and Development*** vol.9, pp. 3-5.
The article examined the possibility of applying literacy as a tool for the transformation of rural areas in Africa. The essay justifies the use of literacy to address the problem of deepening adult illiteracy in the rural settings which tend to affect the rate of development there adversely. However, it is pertinent to raise the critical issue of *(which literacy?)* at this juncture.

19. Akinpelu, J.A.(1979) *"The role of research in the discipline of adult education"* in ***Adult Education in Nigeria*** vol.4, pp.1-13.
This article reviewed the concept of research and examined the salient criteria for the emergence of a subject area as an academic discipline. The author also identified the problems besetting research undertaking in adult education. He indicated the unfavourable attitude of the practitioners and the dominant mode of doing adult education. He indicated the need to widen the scope of undertaking research in the discipline which is considered as nascent. He justifies the need for research given that it is 'the lifeline of any living discipline'.

20. Akinpelu, J.A.(1980) *"Adult education in the new national policy on education"* in ***Adult Education*** (UK), vol 52,no.6, pp.393-399.
This essay discusses the policy provisions for adult education in the 'new' national policy on education adopted by Nigeria in 1977 (revised in 1981). It indicated existing contradictions and ways in which the provisions were indequate and suggested strategies for improvement.

21. Akinpelu, J.A.(1982) *"University of Ibadan external degree programe: A case study of the Distance Education System"* in ***Adult Education in Nigeria*** vol.7, pp.27-38.
The article traces the background of the development of the external degree studies programe of the University of Ibadan as distance education programe planned to meet the growing demand for higher education in Nigeria. The difficulties encountered were analysed and the way forward was indicated.

22. Akinpelu, J.A.(1984) *" Post-literacy and vocational training in the context of rural development and income generation in Africa"* in ***International Review of Education*** vol. XXX, nos. 3-5, pp.315-328.
The articled explores the need to extend the literacy aganda and programmes in Africa, beyond the basic level. It also shows the justification for the infusion of a vocational content in post literacy in order to help empower the rural communities of Africa. This will serve as a vocational training effort for the reduction of poverty and community regeneration in the continent.

23. Akinpelu, J.A.(1985) *"Training of adult educators in Africa"* in ***Convergence*** vol.XVIII, nos. 3-4, pp.32-42.

In this essay, the author tried to discuss the trend of the training of adult educators in Africa at para- professional and professional levels. He identified the problems hindering optimum success in this all-important area of adult education practice. He also suggested feasible alternatives of improving both the content and form of the training activities. The discussion will be most beneficial to policy makers and trainers in the various education and training sectors of education in Africa.

24. Akinpelu, J.A.(1986) *"The ideological factor in mass literacy campaigns"* in ***AALAE Journal*** vol. 1, no.2, pp.54-66.
This article deals with the issue of the political and ideological focus of literacy campaigns generally. Particular reference and illustrations were made on and about Africa. The author's analysis agrees with the widely accepted fact that no literacy of education programe, or project is ever neutral. It must be for or against the interest of the people, that is, the civil society. It is either liberating or domesticating (Freire, 1972, 1985; Walters, 1989; Marshall, 1990; Indabawa, 1991: Kassam, 1994). The author clearly demonstrated that the success or failure of any mass literacy campaign will be determined by its ideological context. Where states are people-oriented, the literacy programe is given the necessary political patronage to succeed. In other situations where the political will is lacking, programmes do not succeed since the necessary conditions for success are not usually found.

25. Akinpelu, J.A.(1990) *" Adult literacy and national development"* in ***Literacy Voices*** vol. 1, no.2, April, pp. 3-13.
This article adds to the important discourse on literacy and development. Salient uses of literacy for personal, social and communal benefits were indicated. Although there is a prevailing debate about causality and precedence on literacy and development, the author simply based his views on the view expressed by Thomas Jefferson, a former president of the USA over two hundred years ago, that : *"...if a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilisation, it expects what never was and never will be"* (Akinpelu,1990: 3). The central argument is that literacy is vital for national development.

26. Akinpelu, J.A.(1992) *" Education and mass literacy: Danger and opportunities for Nigeria in the 21st century"* in ***Education Today*** vol. 5, no.4, pp.41-44.
This brief article explored the synergy between education and literacy. The author suggests that education must be supportive of literacy effort and vice-versa. In this fusion, there are possible dangers and opportunities to build a more prosperous society in Nigeria in the new century. However, policy makers and planners must take the appropriate steps to foster the opportunities and minimise the dangers involved in the fusion of education and mass literacy.

27. Akinpelu, J.A.(1995) *"Equity-based continuing education: The Centre for Continuing Education, University of Botswana"* in ***AALAE Journal*** vol.9, no.1, pp.44-56.
This essay appraises the case of University continuing education practice in Africa. Usually, such services are meant to serve those unjustly excluded in the past. The programmes will then become compensatory and focused on equity, especially in promoting universal access to educational opportunities. The CCE, UB example is easily one of the most noticeable in the Southern African region.

28. Akinpelu, J.A.(1996) *"Equity as a motive in University continuing education in Botswana"* in ***Convergence*** vol. XXIX, no.2, pp. 46-54.
This article is a further discussion of the rationale for the continuing education programmes

provisions at the University of Botswana. The focus of the article is on 'equity as a motive'.

D : Technical reports

29. Akinpelu, J.A(1978) *A report of the Task Force on the implementation of the national policy on education*. This is a joint report submitted to the Government of Oyo State of Nigeria. The report appraised the document and suggested viable strategies for implementing the provisions of the policy in the State. It helped to re-direct educational practice in Oyo State.

30. Akinpelu, J.A (1988) *A report on the Future Prospects of the Nigerian education system.* The report is a product of a commissioned nationwide study on the state of education in Nigeria. It was submitted to the Nigeria Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER), Ibadan. This became a major education policy research which has influenced the thinking of Government on the future of education in the country.

31. Akinpelu, J.A.(1989) *A report on: A case of Oyo State University*. This joint report served as the foundation and technical input for the establishment of the Oyo State University of Science and Technology (now called Ladoke Akintola University of Science and Technology, Ogbomoso).

32. Akinpelu, J.A. and Ogunsanya, I.M. (1992) *A report of a survey of foreign students flow, academic exchange and capacity building in institutions of higher education in Nigeria.* This was a report of a commissioned study done for the Commonwealth Secretariat. The report provided the technical input needed to reshape the Commonwealth educational exchange programe across the countries of the Commonwealth of Nations.

33. Akinpelu, J.A.(1993) *A report on: Design of the National Mass Literacy Programed for Nigeria.* This report was commissioned by the UNDP. It served as the basis for the decision taken by the Organisation to intervene in the National Mass Literacy project in Nigeria. Consequent upon this report, the UNDP provided the sum of $8million for mass literacy in Nigeria for five years, 1995-2000.

34. Akinpelu, J.A.(1994) *A report on the survey of out-of-school children and youth in Nigeria*. This report came out of a nationwide field work sponsored by the World Bank and the Federal Government of Nigeria. The report helped to main stream this excluded population into the National education and mass education plans.

E : Unpublished theses and papers

35. Akinpelu, J.A.(1963) '*The Nature and Destiny of the Soul in Stoicism and Epicureanism*'. An unpublished M.A. thesis in Classics, University of London, London.

36. Akinpelu, J.A.(1970) '*Moral Education and Moral Objectivity*'. An unpublished Ph.D. thesis in Philosophy of Education, Columbia University, New York.

37. Akinpelu, J.A.(1978) *'Is there a discipline of adult education?'* This is an unpublished paper presented at the first Departmental seminar in the Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan. It set the early tone of a debate which is still going on.

38. Akinpelu, J.A.(1979) '*Distance learning system: A case of the proposed external degree programe of the University of Ibadan*'. A paper presented at the International conference on distance education organised by the ECA, held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The proposals in this

paper were adopted by the University of Ibadan in establishing its Centre for External Studies.

39. Akinpelu, J.A.(1983) '*National Open University : Problems and Prospects*'. A paper presented at the 13th Annual National conference of the Nigerian National Council for Adult Education (NNCAE), held at ASCON, Badagry, Lagos. Some of the suggestions in the paper informed the government decision to found a National Open University in Nigeria[3].

40. Akinpelu, J.A.(1986) '*Adult education and political self-reliance*'. A paper presented at the 15th Annual National conference of the NNCAE, held at Makurdi. This paper articulated a national course of action for using adult education to foster the transition to civil rule programe which the military government was putting in place.

41. Akinpelu, J.A.(1986) '*The nature, aims and scope of continuing and vocational education*'. A paper presented at the First National seminar on continuing education convened by the Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan. The participants were adult education practitioners drawn from all parts of Nigeria.

42. Akinpelu, J.A.(1992) '*Mass literacy : A weapon for sustainable development*'. A paper presented on the occasion of the launching of the National Literacy Fund for the new '*Each one teach one*' strategy. The event was held in Abuja. One outcome of the ideas given was the immediate establishment of a National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Nonformal Education, as an umbrella government organ for literacy and adult education.

43. Akinpelu, J.A.(1996) '*Out-of-school education in the revised National Policy on Education: critical appraisal*'. A lead paper, presented at the 3rd Botswana Adult Education Association Workshop, held at Tlokweng, Republic of Botswana.

44. Akinpelu, J.A.(1997) '*Literacy and Development*'. A lead paper presented at the 3rd Botswana Annual Adult Literacy Forum, held at CICE-BCA, Sabele, Republic of Botswana.

Conclusion

This chapter attempts an annotation of 44 selected works of Professor Jones Akinpelu. This is based on the need to justify the dedication of this book to him in particular and to the Institute for International Co-operation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV). The dedication of the book is in recognition of the outstanding contributions Jones and the IIZ/DVV to the development of adult and continuing education theory and practice in Africa. However, due to limitation of space, only 44 of the more than 162 scholarly works of Jones have been annotated. It is hoped that, in spite of these limitations, the annotation exercise will help expand the frontiers of our collective understanding of the subject. Similarly, one hopes that our collective commitment to adult education as a viable project relevant to human sustainable development in Africa and globally will also be enriched.

Notes

[1] In the early 1990s, Universities in Nigeria adopted a collegiate system of administration in order to decentralise decision making. At Ibadan, one of the Colleges established was that of education. He was the First popularly elected Provost of the College from 1990 up to 1994.

[2] This was the leading education journal in West Africa until its seeming demise in the 1980s. At a point, it was a mark of high intellectual standing and achievement to publish articles in WAJE. Lately, sporadic efforts have been made to resuscitate the journal.

[3] The new Open University was one of the institutions that were disbanded after the military coup of December 1983. Yet there is

still a considerable unsatisfied demand for higher education in Nigeria, especially offered on a distance and open learning mode.

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Given the book=s critical and illuminating up-dates on the state of the art and the practical, yet innovative options contained in the chapters, it will certainly be found handy and useful by all, particularly those who have interest in or responsibility for adult and continuing education as scholars or practitioners. Therefore, academics, students, policy makers, development workers, donors, non-governmental organisations personnel and all educators will have much to gain from the ideas lucidly examined in the book.

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